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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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PRACTICAL PROGRAMS TOWARD INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

WORLD events have placed the United States in a position of international leadership. Persons who are sensitive to the obligations which this situation places on responsible citizens appreciate how vital it is for all of us to acquire greater insight into the social and the economic problems existing throughout the world. To determine how these greater insights can be obtained is the problem that confronts us today. Although tolerant attitudes and encouraging words are essential, it requires more than these passive means to bring about adequate understanding among the peoples of the world.

This editorial directs attention to some of the programs already under way which aim at achieving better understanding and which are of special interest to educators. No attempt has been made to evaluate these activities, since it is still too early to predict how effective any of them will

prove to be on a long-term basis. In fact, it is always difficult to appraise activities of this nature. All these endeavors, however, indicate that interested groups in this country have initiated specific educational programs designed to accelerate ideological exchange on an international scale.

Study in for- The Fulbright Act, ap-
eign lands proved in August, 1946, authorizes the Secretary of State to dispose of United States surplus property in foreign countries and to accept payment in foreign currency to be used for purposes of educational exchanges with the United States. This act became operative through President Truman's appointment of a Board of Foreign Scholarships, which met in Washington on October 8 and 9, 1947. The following report of their meeting appeared in the *Bulletin of the Commission for International Educational Reconstruction* published October 31, 1947.

The Board requested that the Institute of International Education, the United States

Office of Education, and the Conference Board of the Associated Research Councils be asked to assume responsibility for selecting American students, teachers, professors, and research workers to receive awards. It is hoped that if these groups accept, plans of administration may be presented at the next meeting of the Board, probably in December. . . . It may then be possible to select a limited number of persons to go abroad by the beginning of the 1948 academic year.

The Act also provides financial assistance to citizens of participating countries who wish to study in American institutions abroad, and payment of travel to and from the United States for study here, where travel costs can be paid in foreign currencies. Expenses within the United States cannot be met with these funds. Programs developed under the Act will be used, as far as possible, to supplement international educational exchanges sponsored by private groups in the United States. . . .

At present, programs are contemplated in the following countries: United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, Finland, Netherlands, Denmark, Belgium, France, Czechoslovakia, Austria, Hungary, Poland, Italy, Greece, Turkey, Egypt, Iran, China, Netherlands East Indies, the Republic of the Philippines, Siam, and Burma. A limit of \$20,000,000 is placed on the amount that any one country may use, with the rate of use being limited to not more than \$1,000,000 per year. Thus the program becomes at least a twenty-year enterprise for any country wishing to avail itself of the maximum amount allowed by the law.

Laurence Duggan, a member of the ten-man Board of Foreign Scholarships, reports in the November *News Bulletin* of the Institute of International Education that the board made several important decisions with regard to the interchange of students. The following statements are quoted from Duggan's report:

It decided that the Act, in its reference to schools and institutions of higher learning, should be interpreted broadly in order that the interchange of librarians, journalists, artists, agricultural extension specialists, and others might come within its provisions.

Secondly, the Board decided that at first no awards would be made to United States undergraduate students. It will be necessary for any United States student making application for Fulbright aid to have at least a Bachelor's degree from a recognized college or university or to have training judged to be equivalent. In addition he must possess the linguistic background suitable for his field of study and the country of his choice. With regard to foreign students applying for travel aid, they must have finished their pre-university training or have had equivalent instruction.

Thirdly, the Board decided to proceed cautiously with respect to grants whether to United States or foreign students, in connection with summer study. It wished to proceed slowly on the basis of "pilot projects" that might be initiated both here and abroad.

Finally, the Board agreed that there should be no distinction between veterans and nonveterans of similar preparation in so far as concerns the amounts of awards, except that the amount received by veterans would be minus whatever assistance they obtained under the G.I. Bill of Rights.

Educational reconstruction abroad The Commission for International Educational Reconstruction (CIER), with headquarters at 744 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington 6, D.C., has a grant of \$100,000 from the Carnegie Corporation. The following quotation presents the purpose, scope, and method of this Commission as set forth in a leaflet entitled "For Peace through Education":

The purposes of the Commission are:

1. To inform the American people through appropriate organizations, of the educational

needs of youth and adults in the devastated countries. This includes responsibility for communicating to national organizations reconstruction needs in the various fields of education, science, and culture as reported by UNESCO, UNRRA, the War Department, and other authoritative governmental, international, and private agencies.

2. To assist organizations in developing effective programs of educational rehabilitation and reconstruction.

3. To effect the closest possible working relationships between American organizations and UNESCO, and between voluntary agencies in the United States and those in other contributing countries to promote educational reconstruction.

4. To utilize such reconstruction activities as a means of fostering mutual international and intercultural understanding and of developing permanent exchanges of materials, personnel, and ideas.

Scope.—The Commission is concerned with the educational needs of youth and adults in all war-devastated countries where a clear need exists and with similar requirements among displaced persons. It deals with all levels and fields of education, e.g., preschool, elementary, secondary, higher, vocational, handicapped, scientific, art. The CIER is also concerned with the reconstruction of scientific and cultural agencies. It is interested in promoting all forms of educational, scientific, and cultural reconstruction. It encourages American organizations to provide (1) material assistance, such as books and educational equipment; (2) fellowships, scholarships, and study grants; (3) educational missions and other exchanges of personnel; and to develop (4) voluntary service projects.

Method.—The Commission is not an operating agency. It is essentially a service agency to American national organizations, assisting them in the formulation and development of effective projects. It has no jurisdiction over the programs of these organizations, but endeavors to assist them in making objective appraisals of needs and in initiating concrete programs.

While the original list of members of the Commission was drawn heavily from the field of education, the Commission now works with more than 200 American organizations of all types—professional, scientific, civic, religious, welfare, relief. These organizations comprise a National Conference on International Educational Reconstruction initially convened by the CIER in November, 1946, and scheduled to meet again on November 1 and 2, 1947, in Washington.

The Commission helps American organizations secure publicity materials and arranges directly for certain types of national publicity. It does not, as a Commission, issue direct appeals to the general public. Its policy assumes that the most extensive participation can be secured through established organizations increasing the likelihood of mutually satisfying and lasting contracts between donor and receiver. The Commission encourages organizations to make their contributions in the form most appropriate to them, such as cash gifts to UNESCO, provision of supplies and equipment, fellowships, scholarships and study grants, technical missions, books and periodicals.

Young children to live overseas—Adult citizens must acquire adequate international understanding in order to survive. Our younger citizens, however, should have direct knowledge of other countries in order that they may make progress in dealing with international and interracial problems. During World War II many veterans in their later teens and early twenties were given opportunities to observe at first hand the culture, the problems, the patterns of behavior, and the geographic advantages and limitations of other peoples. The thinking that these individuals are doing today provides

ample evidence of the desirable results of these experiences.

Unfortunately many of the plans purporting to acquaint pre-teen-age and early teen-age pupils with other countries provide only vicarious knowledge. It is encouraging to learn that at least one plan under discussion surmounts this difficulty by permitting pre-teen-age and early teen-age pupils to learn through direct experience. The November-December, 1947, issue of *Air Age Education News*, provides a reprint of a story that first appeared in the *New York Herald Tribune*, in which Frances Tenenbaum tells that the citizens of Wellesley, Massachusetts, have agreed to a novel and far-reaching scheme for international exchange of students. This town plans to send some of its eleven- and twelve-year-old students to live abroad for one year in order that the knowledge gained may serve as a basis for sound and lasting peace. Frances Tenenbaum describes the plan as follows:

Here is how the plan will work: In the summer of 1950 thirty-five Wellesley children will sail for Europe, South America, and Asia, each to live with the family that has been chosen for him. In their places thirty-five children from those same foreign families will come to Wellesley.

The date 1950 was chosen for several reasons: By then, it is hoped, the countries of Europe and Asia will be politically and economically more stable. Also, Dr. Robert B. Barton [the originator of the program] has no intention of pushing his plan so hastily that it is not completely workable in every particular. . . .

According to the present timetable, this coming year will be devoted to putting the

finishing touches on the project; the following year to making arrangements with foreign countries through their ministries of education and to selecting the children for the exchange. The year before the sailing will be the busiest of all.

That year will be passed in correspondence between the Wellesley families and their counterparts abroad. It will also be a year of extra-curriculum language study. Not only will Johnny Jones, for instance, have to learn Norwegian, but Johnny's parents, who will be replacing him temporarily with a Norwegian child, will have to learn it, too.

The problem of learning the languages and cultures of a possible twenty or thirty countries is no small one. Fortunately for the plan, Arthur Pierce, superintendent of the Wellesley schools, is all in favor of it and promises that with the aid of voluntary teachers it can be done.

Further, since the Wellesley schools will be enhanced by thirty-five foreign students for a year, all of the Wellesley children—not just those going abroad—will be treated to advance information on the countries and cultures of their new schoolmates.

In all cases the foreign towns selected will be as much like Wellesley as possible, and the family to which a child will go will be economically, professionally, and culturally similar to his own.

Education in Latin America Of course the vast majority of our citizenry will be forced to utilize vicarious methods in order to obtain insights into the culture patterns of other lands. One important method which enables us to understand the cultures of others is knowledge of their systems of formal schooling. The historical development and current practices of foreign school systems tell us much about the culture patterns of a people. To this end a series of pamphlets by Cameron D.

Ebaugh, senior specialist in education in Latin-American countries, American Republics Section, Division of International Educational Relations, United States Office of Education, is both timely and useful.

Studies of education in a number of Central and South American countries were made. The editorial writer has before him the reports of five of these studies, all of which are issued as 1947 bulletins of the Office of Education:

- No. 2, *Education in Ecuador*
- No. 3, *Education in El Salvador*
- No. 6, *Education in Nicaragua*
- No. 7, *Education in Guatemala*
- No. 10, *Education in the Dominican Republic* (by Mrs. Gladys L. Potter and Cameron D. Ebaugh)

It is assumed that these bulletins are typical of the others in the series which may have been or are to be printed. These studies should be read by every educator who desires a knowledge of the kinds of formal processes used to school peoples in certain Latin-American countries.

Grants for travel and expenses The following statements concerning travel and maintenance grants to American republics are made in the December, 1947, issue of *School Life* by Thomas E. Cotner, assistant specialist in the International Educational Relations Division of the United States Office of Education. These statements will prove of interest to many high-school teachers and administrators.

1. *Fellowships provided under the Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cul-*

tural Relations.—In 1936 at Buenos Aires, the American nations drafted the Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations. One section of this convention provides for an exchange of students among the signatory republics. As of July 1, 1947, sixteen nations in this hemisphere, including the United States, had ratified this agreement. Each nation is entitled to present a panel of five names of graduate students to the receiving government from which two are chosen for one-year fellowships. The nominating government or the student pays the student's travel expense from his home to the place of study in the receiving nation and return. The receiving government pays tuition, fees, a limited maintenance allowance, and a small sum for books and incidentals. . . .

Since the program's inception, the United States has received its full quota of students. Approximately 160 different students had come to the United States by September, 1947. . . .

Although all of the signatory states have sent students to the United States, not all of them have been financially able to receive our students. Nevertheless, between 1939 and 1942, approximately thirty graduate students from the United States went to eleven separate American Republics to pursue graduate study or research. . . .

2. *Travel and maintenance grants.*—The United States government has offered a limited number of travel and/or maintenance grants to graduate students from the other American republics for study in the United States and to graduate students from this country for study and research in the other American republics. Although quite similar in purpose to the fellowships offered under the Buenos Aires Convention, these grants are different in that they apply to all Latin-American countries. . . .

Since the termination of World War II, similar financial assistance has again been extended to United States graduate students who wish to complete their study or research in Latin America. In 1946, eight grants were

made, and in 1947, assistance was given to fifteen graduate students. During these two years, funds were available to the Department of State for this program. . . . Recent budget reductions in the cultural relations program will undoubtedly prohibit the offering of these grants this year.

Careers in the foreign service

The number of students interested in eventually entering the foreign service is on the increase. It has always been somewhat difficult to inform such pupils of the prospects, the nature of the work, and the preparation required for foreign service. A concise digest of this information has now been prepared by Jack Soudakoff and has been published by Occupational Index (New York University, Washington Square, New York 3, New York) as Occupational Abstract Number 105. Single copies may be obtained for twenty-five cents.

Concerning future prospects in foreign service, Soudakoff states:

The growing influence of the U.S. in world affairs makes opportunities in the Service today greater than they have ever been before. However, the Foreign Service is not large and career jobs have never been numerous. Entrance examinations, which are held periodically, have always been difficult, and competition keen.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS CAN DO BETTER

THE American high school is a unique institution. Through the years its growth in enrolment and its increased curriculum offerings have been impressive. The typical town or suburban center points with pride to its high-school building, for that struc-

ture is frequently the community show place. Teachers and administrators have gone far toward adjusting the services of the school to meet the individual needs of their teen-age pupils. However, in terms of the ultimate place which the secondary school should attain, more must be done. Along with other essential institutions in an evolving society, the secondary school must be alert to the situations which point the way toward improvement and better adjustment to the changing conditions.

Recently lay and professional publications have stressed the need for improvement of the services which are now being rendered to youths of secondary-school age. Professor Theodore D. Rice, of New York University, writing in the November, 1947, issue of *Survey Graphic*, terms the high school a "hot spot." The following quotation from his article challenges the secondary school to greater service:

In 1920, about 86 per cent of the fourteen-year-olds and 35 per cent of the seventeen-year-olds were in school. In 1940, the figures were 92 and 60 per cent. The high-school enrolment continued to grow in the face of a dropping total public-school enrolment. Between 1922 and 1942 the total public-school enrolment decreased more than 1,700,000, while the enrolment in high school (Grades IX-XII) increased more than 1,200,000. Over a ten-year period (1930-40) the number of high-school graduates increased approximately 83 per cent.

But the inadequacy of the present provisions for the education of teen-agers is indicated by the consistent lack of ability on the part of the high schools to hold their pupils.

Thus, of those who entered the ninth grade in 1935, only 57 per cent graduated with their class four years later. More recent figures are not available, but we know that the war accentuated this trend, and that post-war conditions have not retarded it.

Whether they graduate or drop out along the way, high school means the end of formal education for millions of young Americans. Since this is so, it is pertinent to consider some of the major responsibilities of secondary education:

- to develop individual values and aesthetic appreciations, within a philosophy and outlook adequate for our time;

- to develop and exercise skills in democratic processes of government;

- to enable the student to see how he can participate in the conservation and planned use of all resources—personal, public health, economic, and social resources of the community and nation;

- to help students develop and use economic efficiency and vocational skills, giving them opportunities to earn and spend, to share in co-operative undertakings, to compare values and learn wise consumer practices.

While these are stated in terms of the responsibility of secondary schools to youth, they reveal also the responsibility of the school to society.

How influential is the high school? In order to continue its excellent reputation in the community, the high school must restudy its purpose. This thought is clearly expressed by Principal Walter G. Patterson, of Drury High School, North Adams, Massachusetts, in the opening paragraph of his article, "Appropriate and Worthy Education for All Youth," appearing in the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* for November, 1947:

The American high school is now facing a crisis. Either the problem of providing appropriate and worthy education for all youth will be met realistically and perhaps radically, or the high school will not retain its function and prestige in the future. There are many ways that youth may secure an education outside of formal schooling, and there are those who from a purely selfish motivated purpose will be glad to see the high school fail to meet the needs for all and thereby give impetus to a bureaucratic program outside the control of the public secondary schools. Parents have had almost blind and implicit faith in our high schools. How long this faith shall continue will depend upon the changes that are made. If the high school is to provide education for all, then the curriculum will have to be designed for all, professional people will have to accept the responsibility for all, and successful and satisfying experiences must be made possible for all.

Lack of stimulation on the part of the secondary schools to inspire young people to continue their education is at least implied in a recent report, entitled *Unfinished Business*, made by a State-wide Committee on Higher Education in Minnesota. The committee's statements concerning the situation in Minnesota, in part, are:

Only one in five of all our young people continues his education beyond high school. (Two-fifths do not even secure a high-school diploma.)

Only one in three of those who finish high school takes some further schooling.

Among the specially gifted boys and girls, for every one who goes to college, there is another who does not.

These facts speak for themselves. Far too few of our young men and women are getting enough preparation for assuming the personal, social, and civic responsibilities of adults living in a democratic society.

High-school graduates speak out One effective way to discover how well the schools serve youth is to consider the opinions of the graduates themselves. Although the opinions of drop-outs are not often taken into account, data are more likely to reflect the true state of affairs if these opinions are included. Of course the statement of a particular individual may be conditioned by a peculiar experience, but, collectively, here is a weight of evidence which the secondary schools and colleges should not fail to notice. Evan L. Jones, director of pupil personnel at Highlands High School, Fort Thomas, Kentucky, presents in the December, 1947, issue of the *School Executive* the results of a study made in the spring of 1947. Mr. Jones obtained the opinions of the curriculum held by 337 of the persons who had graduated from the school over a sixteen-year period. The conclusion is:

After a few years out in the field many graduates felt that courses such as current events and homemaking had more value for them than some of the traditional subjects.

Trend in general education The problem is to provide the kind of secondary-school education which is stimulating to pupils so that increasing numbers of them will complete high school and go on to college and which, at the same time, provides the training that all citizens should possess. This twofold responsibility forces educators not only to take into account the observations of graduates and drop-outs but

also to develop a philosophy of education applicable to the secondary school. Too frequently the curriculum offerings, like Topsy, have just "grow'd." The trend toward general education as a solution to the curriculum problem is observed by J. Cecil Parker, associate professor of education at the University of California, in the *California Journal of Secondary Education* for October, 1947. States Parker:

The signposts for a major development in secondary education were observable in the "General-Education Movement" which was growing so rapidly when World War II arrived. During the war, the movement was interrupted—in fact, almost disappeared; and the resources of secondary education were devoted primarily to contributions to the war effort. Following the inevitable readjustments at the termination of hostilities, the "General-Education Movement" acquired new and greater vitality; and at the present time, it offers much hope for better solutions to many of our curriculum problems.

The factors which should be considered in designing a general-education program are summarized by Professor Parker:

As we are seeking better synthesis in the program of general education in the secondary schools, the efforts to go beyond subject matter in finding organizing factors are focusing attention upon the problems of balance and completeness. Increasingly, we are realizing that there are at least five factors and their relationships involved in planning a program of learning experiences for and with secondary-school students.

1. *The maturing student*—he must be the focal point in organizing instruction. His interests, his needs, his abilities, and his pur-

poses must play a significant role in the selection of experiences and procedures.

2. *The social functions, things that people do as individuals and as members of groups in a democracy*—protect life and health, utilize and conserve the environment, provide government, etc. However classified or designated, they should serve as points of emphasis and as safeguards to balance in planning learning experiences and procedures.

3. *The processes essential in doing the things that individuals and groups find it necessary to do*—think, plan, work with others, make choices, talk, write, figure, etc. The essential processes should serve as guides to the selection of objectives and experiences. In reality, they are the most significant factor in planning modern education. We are interested in facility with processes of living, not primarily in "particular answers."

4. *The significant ideas, facts, and subject matter*—whatever the specific activity or the processes, it is necessary to use facts and ideas. What man has learned is useful. The fact that no student can "encompass it all" makes selection a necessity. Facts, ideas, and subject matter change very rapidly in many fields. A realistic concept of education today dictates policies of selecting content upon the basis of maturing students' attacking problems of living today.

5. *The settings*—in which the individual and the group utilize processes and content in doing things—the home, the school, the street, the community, society, the world, the universe.

School and Work experience for work experience high-school pupils is useful for several reasons.

Most pupils, of course, work part-time for the financial returns, and in some instances the money is necessary to keep pupils in school. However, this is by no means the only reason that pupils obtain part-time jobs. Youths want to do

their part in carrying on the worthwhile activities of the world. They also desire to become acquainted with the realities of the world of work in which they will eventually have to make a success if they are to live in the manner which they envision.

During the war great interest was manifested by secondary schools in providing programs of school and work within the typical school day. Co-operative planning for co-ordinating class instruction with part-time job experience was practiced to a lesser extent. Programs allowing time for some employment as part of the regular school program, which was neither education of the co-operative type nor apprenticeship instruction, continued to grow impressively.

These programs are the subject of an illuminating report, *School-and-Work Programs*, written by Caroline E. Legg, Carl A. Jessen, and Maris M. Proffitt and published as Bulletin Number 9, 1947, of the United States Office of Education. Information on the various kinds of school-and-work arrangements was obtained from 136 school systems. On the basis of these data, the authors make the following observations in regard to the good and bad features of such plans:

GOOD FEATURES

Held many pupils in school who would under wartime conditions have dropped out of school altogether.

Provided a source of income for pupils in need of additional funds.

Provided an opportunity for some pupils to contribute to the war effort while continuing in school.

Emphasized the need for standards on hours and other working conditions of working students and for carefully developed and well-staffed school supervision over the arrangements.

Emphasized individual differences among pupils, both as to the combined school-and-work load which some pupils could carry and others could not carry, and as to kinds of work in which each could find educational value.

Stimulated the development of pupil personnel services and a recognition of their importance for educational purposes.

Led to more flexibility in school programs, both as to content and schedule.

Emphasized school-community and school-industry relationships for co-operative purposes in educational undertakings.

Stimulated schools to evaluate outside experience as to its suitability for the granting of school credit.

BAD FEATURES

Many students participated whose interests would have been better served by full-time school; many were too young.

School-and-work schedules deprived many pupils of the chance to participate in important school activities both during and after school hours.

Jobs were frequently routine in character and offered little in way of experience that could not have been gained by employment for shorter hours outside of school time.

Co-ordinating services were generally too limited for carrying a proper amount of supervision over working conditions and experience on the job.

Many pupils carried so heavy a school-and-work load as to endanger physical and mental health.

There was frequently too much night work and also too much interference with regular meals.

The relatively high earnings gave some pupils an exaggerated sense of the money value of their services.

Money values rather than life-adjustment values were too largely the motivating force that led students into school-and-work programs.

Provisions were inadequate for capitalizing upon the work experience of the pupil for class instruction.

STATE CERTIFICATE ON EXAMINATION

THE authority to issue certificates to teach originated with local school authorities. Typically the certificates were valid for short terms, covered limited geographic areas, and were issued on the basis of unstandardized examinations or interviews. As professional standards in education improved, certificates to teach became valid for longer terms, included wider geographic areas (the state), and were issued on the basis of credentials. In the evolution of the authority to issue certificates, the unstandardized type of examination fell into disrepute. In large cities the more formalized examination was used as a method of evaluating candidates' qualifications for teaching and administrative positions, but these examinations were not used as a basis for issuing state certificates to teach.

South Carolina is the first state to experiment with teacher examinations for use in issuing state certificates to teach. In the *Educational Record* for October, 1947, the results of this experiment to date are reported by E. R. Crow, superintendent of schools in Sumter, South Carolina. His observations are quoted because they merit

the attention of the profession generally:

The program of certification, linked as it is with the state-aid schedule, operates to reward the better-trained teacher and the teacher of experience, since fourteen salary increments are provided. This means that the program at the same time weighs against the poorly trained teacher. While this principle may be accepted as sound, there is a limit to its application. A prediction is ventured, based on opinion only, that after a few years, when the supply of teachers is more nearly adequate, the function of the examination in certification will be to secure the elimination of applicants below certain educational levels.

It is too soon to pass judgment upon the South Carolina program. Its drastic nature could not fail to produce strong opposition as well as strong support. In general, the program has the support of the state's educational leadership and the public, and apparently it has the support of the great majority of the teachers. Only a few teachers have not benefited financially from the increased state-aid schedule. Teachers' organizations have given their approval. The majority of teachers seem to feel that the profession of teaching has been given better status and that the basic principles of the new system will survive.

The use of the common examinations of the National Teacher Examinations has undoubtedly broadened the interests of teachers, thus improving their general education and thus helping to guard against narrow specialization. The use of the examination stimulates the development of a broader culture and wider interests.

It is believed that the use of the examinations, whether for the purpose of establishing rank or of eliminating the undesirable candidate, will serve to attract the more capable to the occupation of teaching and will help toward the development of this occupation into a profession.

PROCEEDINGS OF EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCES

THE Department of Education of the University of Chicago provides for the publication of proceedings of four educational conferences held annually in connection with the summer session. These four conferences deal with current problems in the areas of reading, arithmetic, the administration of schools and school systems, and the programs and management of various types of higher institutions. Proceedings of the 1947 summer conferences have been published and are described briefly below.

Promoting Personal and Social Development through Reading, edited by William S. Gray, identifies types of development toward which the school should undertake to guide children and youth through reading experiences, describes the most appropriate selections of reading materials for use in classes of different levels of advancement, and explains procedures that have proved effective in promoting progress toward understandings and attitudes characteristic of desirable adjustment of the individual to social life. Materials and procedures appropriate for use with various age groups from the primary grades to college level are described and illustrated.

"Arithmetic 1947," edited by G. T. Buswell, deals with problems of teaching in this subject field from three points of view: (1) an examination of the total program in arithmetic through the elementary and junior

high school grades; (2) the discussion of specific features of the program at each of the three levels, primary, intermediate, and upper grades through the junior high school; and (3) the consideration of specific objectives, using the problem of teaching place value as an illustration.

Administrative Planning for School Programs and Plants, edited by Dan H. Cooper, stresses the importance of systematic planning in preparation for the formidable task of rehabilitating the nation's school plants to provide effective service for an increasing school population and adequate facilities for new practices and acceptable educational programs. The nature of the modern school program is described, and the characteristics of an appropriate school plant are explained in terms of the objectives of the suggested program. Several chapters of this volume are devoted to the consideration of various technical aspects of school-plant development; other chapters deal with finance and public relations as aspects of the general problem of school building programs.

The Administration of Higher Institutions under Changing Conditions, edited by Norman Burns, identifies the

emerging trends with respect to the aims and the structure of higher education, and considers some major problems of administrative management in light of recent research and experience with changing school personnel. These problems pertain to control and general administration of the institution, the development of effective practices in internal administration, and faculty responsibilities relating to the administrative function.

These four volumes are available on order addressed to the University of Chicago Press. "*Arithmetic 1947*" is priced at \$1.50 a copy; the other three, at \$2.00 a copy.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO TEA

THE Department of Education of the University of Chicago will give a tea for alumni and former students of the University who attend the annual meeting of the American Association of School Administrators at Atlantic City during the week of February 21-26. The tea will be given in the Ozone Room of the Dennis Hotel on Tuesday, February 24, from four to six o'clock.

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

WHO'S WHO FOR FEBRUARY

Authors of news notes and articles by ROBERT C. WOELL-

NER, associate professor of education, assistant dean of students, and director of vocational guidance and placement at the University of Chicago. JAMES W. REYNOLDS, professor of education at George Peabody College for Teachers at Nashville, Tennessee, discusses the factors which are leading to the upward extension of secondary education. GRACE RUBIN-RABSON, lecturer and clinical psychologist of Fort Wayne, Indiana, reports a survey of a small adult group with respect to their conservative or radical attitudes toward subjects falling in economic, socio-political, sexual, and religious areas. THOMAS E. CARSON, principal of the Samuel Hamilton Junior High School, Ross Township, Allegheny County, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and RUTH ANN DAVIES, librarian in the same institution, explain how the library has been made a vital part of their school's program. HUGH R. WALPOLE, assistant professor and examiner at the University of Chicago, presents a discussion of the teaching of English grammar, in which he argues for flexibility in analysis and advocates that numerical classification be substituted for the

names of the parts of speech. Selected references on subject fields are presented by DORA V. SMITH, professor of education at the University of Minnesota; ROBERT E. KEOHANE, assistant professor of the social sciences in the College of the University of Chicago; EDITH P. PARKER, associate professor of the teaching of geography at the University of Chicago; WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP, associate professor of the teaching of science at the University of Chicago; MAURICE L. HARTUNG, associate professor of the teaching of mathematics at the University of Chicago; and FRANCIS F. POWERS, dean of the College of Education at the University of Washington.

Reviewers of books HUGH R. WALPOLE, assistant professor and examiner at the University

of Chicago. EDNA LUE FURNESS, assistant professor of foreign-language education at the University of Wyoming. MARIAN RAYBURN BROWN, formerly a research assistant at Teachers College, Columbia University, at present working on a guidance study in the metropolitan area in New York City. C. L. WINTERS, JR., administrative assistant to the director of the International Harvester Research Project at the University of Chicago.

EXTENDING SECONDARY EDUCATION VERTICALLY

JAMES W. REYNOLDS

George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee



THE present status of the American high school, like that of other contemporary social institutions, is the product of an evolutionary process. Experience, however, demonstrates that, for social institutions, flexibility is the safest insurance against extinction. The influence of the Latin grammar school and the academy waned because their program failed to satisfy emerging social needs. The high school has continued as the dominant agency for secondary education because it has been able to effect far-reaching alterations in its program.

Viewed in the light of this evolutionary process, proposals to extend the high school to include Grades XIII and XIV present a realistic approach to a problem which has been developing for over half a century. Fortunately, this approach has the benefit of a mass of evidence compiled through the development of the junior college. Frequent reference will, consequently, be made to this evidence. Two issues of particular importance appear to be involved in the question: Should high schools extend their program to include Grades XIII and XIV? (1) Does the proposed change promise satisfac-

tion of the educational needs that are indicated by observable trends of social evolution? (2) If so, does the proposed change represent the best method for satisfying these needs.

EDUCATIONAL NEEDS RESULTING FROM SOCIAL EVOLUTION

The problem of selecting observable trends of significance to the first issue is simplified by reliance on two studies: Edwards' *Equal Educational Opportunities for American Youth: A National Responsibility* (5) and the report of the National Advisory Committee on Vocational Education of College Grade published by the United States Office of Education (16). While additional evidence is employed in discussing the issue, the bulk of this analysis rests on these reports.

Five trends have been selected for discussion because of their pertinence to the issue: the declining employment of young people, occupational trends indicating the need for higher-level education for vocations, the growing complexity of society, changing social demands for the education

of adults, and the influence of democracy as a social ideal.

Declining employment of young people.—Observable trends in youth employment reveal a progressive removal of this group from the labor force. This development began with the youngest age groups and proceeded until it is now affecting the eighteen- and nineteen-year-olds.

The age group, ten to fifteen, had one out of every five of its members gainfully employed in 1910 (14: 51). By 1930, this ratio had dropped to one in twenty (13: 53). The 1920 Census report showed that 44.7 per cent of the sixteen- and seventeen-year-olds were employed (14: 51), while in 1940 employment in this same group had dropped to 21 per cent (15: 111). Eighteen- and nineteen-year-olds in 1920 contributed 60 per cent of their numbers to gainful employment (14: 51), but by 1940 this figure had dropped to 52.7 (15: 111).

No theorizing is necessary to detect the need indicated by this trend. The social problems created by idle youth during the depression years are too vivid in our memories. However, statistics clearly demonstrate that the schools are at work in satisfying this need. The proportion of sixteen- and seventeen-year-olds in school rose from 42.9 per cent in 1910 to 68.7 in 1940, while the eighteen- and nineteen-year-olds, the age group served by Grades XIII and XIV, increased from 18.1 per cent in 1910 to 28.9 per cent in 1940 (15: 204). On this basis, one can conclude correctly that the

proposed change gives promise of satisfying the indicated need.

Emerging needs for higher-level education for vocations.—The second development selected for observation, occupational trends indicating needs for higher-level education for vocations, bears a complementary relation to the trend just considered. If adding Grades XIII and XIV will provide activity for youth who would otherwise be unoccupied, this second trend suggests an educational program for these added grades. In consideration of this second trend, higher-level education will be defined, for the sake of convenience, as applying only to the acquisition of vocational competence.

Occupational trends in this country have, in general, followed a pattern aptly described by Norton when he states, "For more than a century economic production has increasingly involved intelligence, science, power, and technology, while ignorance and mere muscular force have been on the decline" (4: 76). Additional evidence to support this statement is found in the study by the National Advisory Committee on Vocational Education of College Grade (16: 15-16), which concludes that "more than half the individuals in the labor force are engaged in occupations for which they may appropriately be trained in college-level vocational programs" (16: 16).

What, specifically, are some of these occupations? Max Shiferl, formerly a research assistant with the American Association of Junior Colleges, reports

nine categories of such occupations: agriculture, business, engineering and technology, fine arts, health services, home economics, journalism, public service, and a miscellaneous classification, including cosmetology, undertaking, religious education, printing, etc. (6: 67). This list was compiled from offerings of junior colleges in 1941 and identifies fifty-eight semiprofessional and general cultural curriculums (6: 47).

This second trend, then, reveals an increasingly large number of occupations for which formal education beyond the high school, but less than four years of college, is required. As with the first indicated need, educational agencies are making progress toward satisfying the second need. Shiferl reports 25,467 students enrolled in semiprofessional curriculums offered by 73 per cent of the local public junior colleges (6: 53), a type identical with that proposed in the title of this paper.

Growing complexity of society.—The third trend, the growing complexity of society, also possesses a complementary relation to the trend immediately preceding. Evidence has been advanced to indicate the increasing need for vocational education beyond the twelfth-grade level. The third trend considers the situation in the nonvocational field.

The past seventy-five years have seen great changes in American society, produced by the rapid extension of knowledge and the application of this knowledge to the basic social and

economic problems of our culture. Some idea of the scope of the changes may be obtained from a brief consideration of representative developments in the commonly accepted areas of general education.

The area of health has expanded through widely varying means, such as the increased knowledge of the principles of hygiene, the conquest of many once deadly diseases, the multiplication of hospitals and clinics, and the extension of public health services.

A new conception of communication of ideas, involving techniques of writing, speaking, reading, and listening, has replaced the narrow idea of the mechanics of grammar and rhetoric.

Problems of personal-social adjustment are vastly more complex owing to the greater mobility of the population and the innumerable impacts of the Industrial Revolution on a once semi-isolated, predominantly rural society.

The problems of family-marital relations have become intricately complicated. Illustrations of this complexity are found in the areas of consumer education, child care, commercialized recreation, and urban housing.

Citizenship, formerly involving a comparatively simple set of responsibilities, now assigns to the individual a bewildering array of problems, for example, atom bombs, international trade, the complete interdependence of all peoples, and world political organization.

Three-quarters of a century ago, the great mass of the American people could afford to be comparatively illiterate in the area of science without incurring serious penalties to their standard of living. Today, the products of the advances in biological and physical science so completely pervade every aspect of living that a state of ignorance is no longer tolerable. Life, to be lived at its best, demands a broad understanding of basic scientific principles.

As with science, so it is with the arts. The arts have been thrust into the lives of all people through the great increase in the number of museums, libraries, galleries, musical organizations, and other similar institutions, as well as through the radio, the phonograph, and the picture show. Literature, owing to the publication of a deluge of books, periodicals, and newspapers, also demands more and more attention.

Personal philosophies have felt the change through the multiplication of religious sects, the appearance of novel socio-political ideologies, and the shifting function of the church.

Finally, vocational guidance has been revolutionized by the changes in occupations noted previously and through the development of many new techniques of administration.

In the face of this tremendously increased responsibility for enlightenment, the home has transferred the greater part of its educational function to the schools. To meet this new demand, schools have had to extend

their programs both downward and upward. The marked increase in the number of junior colleges illustrates one of the alterations which social evolution has necessitated. This extension of the secondary schools reveals, in part, the adjustment being made in response to the needs indicated in this third trend.

Increasing needs for adult education.—The accelerated pace at which changes take place in American society creates educational needs for adults as well as youth. Nevertheless, because of preoccupation with the problems of educating youth, at no time before World War I did adult education assume large proportions. By 1934, however, Cartwright estimated the number of individuals enrolled in adult-education programs to be approximately twenty-two and a quarter millions (3: 60).

What are the factors which have brought about this situation? Edwards suggests three social developments which help supply answers to this question: insecurity of employment opportunity, increased leisure, and the rapidity of social change which requires continual reshaping of social insight (5: 28-30). Bolton and Corbally list two additional factors: the new evidence on adult learning ability and the opportunity during the financial depression of the thirties to explore the field further and devise new techniques (1: 387-89).

A sixth factor is seen in the popularization of adult education, which is eliminating the element of novelty

and is bringing acceptance of the program by a large segment of the American people. Society now sanctions efforts to satisfy adult-educational needs, such as vocational training, improved use of leisure time, opportunities for meeting and discussing economic and political issues, or learning improved methods of homemaking.

That the proposed extension of the high schools promises satisfaction of this need is seen in data presented in the *Junior College Journal*. The data indicate that the number of adults served by public junior colleges is in excess of a hundred thousand (11: 232). Furthermore, this number includes only those persons enrolled in formal classes.

The influence of democracy as a social ideal.—The fifth trend concerns the influence of democracy as a social ideal. Edwards has given a concise description of this factor:

Unless there is a change in the fundamental principles upon which American democratic institutions rest, the publicly supported schools and colleges of this country must be kept open to all alike, to the poor as well as the rich, to those of moderate talents as well as to those of superior ability, to the boys and girls who will constitute the rank and file of the great industrial army as well as those who will fill positions as industrial leaders or who will enter one or another of the professions. . . . When some change in our economy, or some disturbance of existing social arrangements as, for example, the exclusion of youth from industry, operates to create a demand for additional schooling, we have no choice but to provide it [5: 21-22].

Is the proposed extension of the high school consistent with these ideals of education in a democracy? The answer may be found in the reports of L. V. Koos, whose writings have been the standard authoritative reference on the junior college for more than a quarter of a century. On the basis of an exhaustive analysis of the mass of evidence, he concludes, "Without doubt, we have in the public junior college an important influence for the economic and social democratization of educational opportunity" (8: 143).

By way of summary of the first issue, five observable trends have been examined. These trends have indicated needs for an educational program including the following features: activity for the increasing number of youth who are not being absorbed in the labor market; vocational preparation at an advanced level, particularly for semiprofessional occupations; better preparation for nonvocational aspects of life, such as health, citizenship, and homemaking; opportunity for adults to keep pace with social change; and a program characterized by democratic principles. In connection with each of these needs it has been shown that public junior colleges of a type identical with that proposed not only can meet these needs satisfactorily but actually are doing so.

MEANS FOR SATISFYING EMERGING EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

The second issue suggested for consideration involves the question: Does

the proposed change, that of extending the high school to include Grades XIII and XIV, constitute the best method for satisfying the identified needs?

American society has sanctioned numerous agencies whose purposes are directed toward satisfying these educational needs. Of this group, however, relatively few have developed programs sufficiently comprehensive to satisfy the sum total of needs for vocational and general education for youth and an educational program for adults. When this reduced list is subjected to the further test of satisfying the need for a democratic agency serving all groups, further reductions occur. This screening process leaves for consideration three organizations: the local public junior college, the state or regional public junior college, and the public universities or four-year colleges. In the ensuing discussion, it should be recalled that the local public junior college is virtually a vertical extension of secondary education.

Major reliance will be placed on the reports of L. V. Koos in the following discussion of the relative excellence of these three agencies in meeting the needs previously identified. Koos concludes that the local public junior college is the preferred type (9: 284). This conclusion is based on a careful analysis of the evidence relating to two criteria: democratization and the factors involved in the integration of Grades XIII and XIV with the high school. A brief summary of his analyses will serve to demonstrate the validity of his conclusions.

Democratization of educational opportunity.—The criterion of democratization is employed in an examination of subsequent formal education taken by high-school graduates. The situations analyzed involve junior colleges associated with high schools in varying degrees of integration, from the four-year organization (Grades XI through XIV) at one extreme to the completely separated institutions at the other. While in this article attention is focused on the junior college, the conclusions pertaining to the separate institutions apply equally to the public university and the four-year college.

A follow-up study was made of approximately twelve thousand twelfth-grade pupils in sixty-one high schools located in twelve states in the South, the Middle West, and the Far West. Information concerning the socioeconomic classification of these students was obtained by questionnaire during the second semester of the school year, 1940-41. During October, 1941, additional information was secured about these pupils, now graduates, from the principals of the high schools which they had attended. The percentage of pupils who had continued their formal education was determined for the high schools, in systems both with and without junior colleges. A further classification of the findings was made in these two situations by comparing the pupils in the lower and upper socioeconomic groups. Koos reports:

The median percentage continuing into the collegiate level for all graduates in systems with local public junior colleges is

almost two and a half times that for systems without junior colleges [48.4 to 19.7]; for the higher socioeconomic group it is about one and a half times as large [60.7 to 38.7]; and for the lower socioeconomic groups the ratio rises to over three and a half [39.1 to 10.8] [7: 123-24].

Koos presents additional findings in another analysis of the same data. He tests the assertions made in support of the regional junior colleges by comparing the number of high-school graduates attending local public junior colleges with those attending state junior colleges. The criterion of the proximity of the junior college to the high school is applied. Approximately the same median percentage of high-school graduates attend their local public junior colleges as graduates from high schools attend state junior colleges located in the same city—44.3 per cent for local public and 43.2 per cent for state institutions. However, the median percentage of attendance at state junior colleges by graduates of high schools no farther away than seven to fifteen miles drops sharply to 12.7; from high schools sixteen to thirty miles distant, 8.3; from high schools thirty-one to fifty miles, 6.4; and from fifty-one to seventy-five miles, 1.7 (10: 527). Koos comments:

The logical inference is that, in the drastic reductions in the proportion of graduates entering junior colleges at a distance from the home town, it is the youth from the lower socioeconomic levels who are most cut off from opportunities for higher education [10: 529].

Norman Burns reports similar findings based on his study of the state

system of junior colleges in Georgia (2: 598).

Integration of the secondary school program.—Judged by the criterion of integration of Grades XIII and XIV with the high school, the local public junior college is superior in many respects to the state or regional public junior college and to the public university and four-year college. Koos points out five areas of superiority. While each of these findings is based on an extensive analysis of the evidence, it is sufficient here to present the conclusions only:

The guidance program is superior as it results in greater persistence of junior-college students in Grade XIV and in more effective classification of students by curriculums.

There is greater opportunity for teacher effectiveness in the classroom. Teaching assignments involve classes on both the high-school and junior-college levels, thus assuring a sufficient number of classes in the area of the teacher's subject-matter competence to constitute a full teaching load [7: 188-89].

Greater opportunity exists for developing a four-year articulated curriculum through more frequent joint faculty meetings, departmental meetings, curriculum planning, and supervision [7: 159-62].

Lower costs occur at the junior-college level because of the saving in the outlay for administrative and supervisory services and for many facilities of instruction [7: 190].

There is a greater availability of general facilities, such as offices, lunchrooms and cafeterias, and auditoriums; and of specialized facilities, such as special classrooms for art, music, bookkeeping, laboratories, and shops [7: 171-72].

Sexson and Harbeson add other advantages, not the least of which is

that accruing from the opportunity of being able to work with pupils longer than the two-year period which characterizes the separate junior colleges (12: 103-4).

The preceding discussion has dealt with points of superiority possessed by the public junior college integrated with the high school over completely separated institutions. There is one other aspect of this matter which deserves mention. From the evidence, Koos demonstrates advantages not only for the thirteenth- and fourteenth-grade levels but also for the high-school level. Specifically, these benefits exist in the areas of curriculum offerings and higher standards of teacher preparation (7: 189).

RELATED PROBLEMS

In summary, three types of educational agencies have developed educational programs sufficiently comprehensive and democratic to satisfy the needs which have been produced by an evolving society. Of these three, the evidence demonstrates the local public junior college to be superior because of its greater democratization of educational opportunity and because of the factors involved in the integration of Grades XIII and XIV with the high school.

In conclusion, three short questions are asked:

1. What should be done in the many areas of the country in which elementary education is as yet inadequately financed? In answer, the plain fact is

that additional sources must be utilized to provide adequate financing for the whole public-school system. It is, however, pertinent to recall that, if local high schools do not provide needed services, other agencies will. The needs are too real to be dismissed. The examples of the out-of-school programs of the National Youth Administration and the Civilian Conservation Corps indicate a possible turn which events might take. The fact that these programs, regardless of one's prejudices, did satisfy needs should be remembered.

2. Do the needs for further education exist with equal force in all sections of the country? Frankly, the answer is "No." The difference is one of degree, however, and not of absence or presence. Moreover, in all sections the needs are being intensified. This intensification is, no doubt, accelerated by the current upsurge of college enrolments. The question, then, poses the problem of how long any section, in the face of this evolutionary process and of the principle of equal educational opportunity, can say its need for such a step is insignificant.

3. Does the proposed step eliminate the need for all other agencies engaged in providing some, or all, of these educational services? Again, the answer is emphatically "No." It may mean a clarification of the true functions of the other agencies and even an elimination of those few for which no real need exists. This reorganization, however, cannot be considered an undesirable result.

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CONSERVATIVE-RADICAL OPINION IN A SMALL MIDWESTERN GROUP

GRACE RUBIN-RABSON

Fort Wayne, Indiana

★

IN 1930, Sheldon administered his conservative-radical inventory to 1,500 male and 1,500 female University of Wisconsin students.¹ With the same inventory in 1947, a preliminary survey was made of an adult group attending a lecture course in psychology at Indiana University in Fort Wayne. Inconclusive as these results may be, because of the size of the sample, this article is presented (1) because trends in the data are interesting in themselves and comparable with those in Sheldon's large study made seventeen years earlier and (2) in the hope that other investigators will undertake studies in other areas of the country similar to a larger study projected for Fort Wayne.

The inventory gauges attitudes in four areas of conscious thinking on a scale from one to five, comprising, roughly, (1) reactionary, (2) conservative, (3) middle-of-the-road, (4) liberal, and (5) radical points of view. The four areas and their subdivisions are:

1. Economic

- a) Limitation of profit
- b) Wealth distribution

¹ W. H. Sheldon and S. S. Stevens, *The Varieties of Temperament*, pp. 30, 491-99. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942.

- c) Inheritance of wealth
- d) Economics of fashion change
- e) Advertising
- 2. Socio-political
 - a) American democracy
 - b) Patriotism
 - c) The observance of law
 - d) The free-speech question
 - e) Socialism
- 3. Sexual-Family
 - a) Monogamy
 - b) Birth control
 - c) Sacredness of the family
 - d) Premarital sexual experience for women
 - e) Elasticity of sexual morality
- 4. Orientational-Religious
 - a) The church
 - b) The reality of divine inspiration
 - c) The supernatural idea
 - d) Individual immortality
 - e) The idea of God

Space limitations prevent the presentation of all five statements under each subdivision, but the following selection yields a basis for estimating the five degrees of opinion throughout the inventory.

AREA 1, ITEM a—ECONOMIC

Reactionary point of view.—Every person should be free to buy any article or product at the lowest price he can persuade others to accept and to sell it at the highest price he can persuade others to pay. If it costs three cents a quart to produce a commodity and

the stuff can be sold at three dollars a quart, this is strictly ethical.

Radical point of view.—Uncontrolled profiting is unqualifiedly one of the worst evils man has developed. It is one of the central causes of human misery. Profit should be rigidly controlled.

AREA 2, ITEM b—PATRIOTISM

Conservative point of view.—Americans should be patriotic, of course, and a child should be taught to love his country. Perhaps the present emphasis upon patriotism is enough, however. We ought not to be a war-like nation.

Liberal point of view.—The teaching of patriotism is doubtless one cause of war. It certainly ought to be de-emphasized.

AREA 3, ITEM c—SACREDNESS OF THE FAMILY

Middle-of-the-road point of view.—There may be some question as to the soundness of the family-unit idea.

Radical point of view.—The family arrangement of society exerts an appallingly inhibitory and frustrational influence upon ultimate human welfare and happiness. It has been but a poor makeshift, and its replacement should be welcomed.

AREA 4, ITEM c—THE IDEA OF GOD

Reactionary point of view.—It is absolutely necessary to retain the belief and the teaching that God exists as a personal being, conscious of human affairs. Without this as a cornerstone, there could be no meaning to religion or to the idea of purpose in the world.

Radical point of view.—The assumption of the existence of God ought never to enter into human thought and teaching. This assumption is misleading, dangerous, and confusing to young minds.

COMPARISON OF FORT WAYNE AND WISCONSIN DATA

The Fort Wayne group of forty-six persons (forty-one women and five

men) included four individuals under twenty years of age, eleven in the third decade, fourteen in the fourth, thirteen in the fifth, and four in the sixth decade. They were unselected, except in so far as attendance at an uncredited evening lecture may indicate an intellectually curious and hence, presumptively, a somewhat liberal sample of the community.

Table 1, in which the writer has converted Sheldon's data to percentages, makes a comparison of the major trends of both groups. The similarity of the "Liberal" percentages for both groups invites speculation whether these percentages represent a relatively constant proportion in nearly any population at any time; whether it is specific to the Midwest; whether it reflects two historical moments—pre-New Deal, in 1930 and post-New Deal, in 1947—both of which are so rich in common factors that they produce a like yield of progressive opinion; or whether, in view of the greater age, lower educational level, and wider experience of the Fort Wayne subjects, a comparable percentage indicates an actual increase of liberalism in the Fort Wayne group, since it might be expected to show a smaller liberal fraction.

A notable difference appears, however, in the "Reactionary," the "Conservative," and the "Reactionary and Conservative" percentages. In every one of the four areas, the large middle-of-the-road percentage of the Wisconsin group has been much reduced in the Fort Wayne sample, with

a decided shift toward conservative and reactionary views. In Areas 1 and 2 the most reactionary attitudes are found in about the same proportion for both groups, but larger fractions of the older group take a conservative, even if not reactionary, stand. In the economic and the socio-political areas, it may be assumed that the college

ness for the two groups in the "Reactionary," the "Liberal," and the "Radical" percentages, the differences in the "Conservative" percentages being largely a result of the differences in the "Middle-of-the-Road" percentages.

Areas 3 and 4, the sexual-family and orientational-religious, reflect the per-

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGE OF CONSERVATIVE-RADICAL OPINIONS OF THREE THOUSAND UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN STUDENTS IN 1930 COMPARED WITH OPINIONS OF FORTY-SIX FORT WAYNE ADULTS IN 1947

POINT OF VIEW	AREA 1 ECONOMIC		AREA 2 SOCIO- POLITICAL		AREA 3 SEXUAL- FAMILY		AREA 4 ORIENTATIONAL- RELIGIOUS		ALL AREAS	
	Wisconsin	Fort Wayne	Wisconsin	Fort Wayne	Wisconsin	Fort Wayne	Wisconsin	Fort Wayne	Wisconsin	Fort Wayne
Reactionary.....	14	15	8	7	22	41	15	28	15	23
Conservative.....	27	40	24	56	24	24	27	22	26	35
Reactionary and conservative.....	41	55	32	63	46	65	42	51	41	58
Middle-of-the-road.....	34	13	31	11	25	12	27	14	28	13
Liberal.....	18	22	27	21	18	10	20	18	21	18
Radical.....	7	10	10	5	11	13	11	17	10	11
Liberal and radical.....	25	32	37	26	29	23	31	35	31	29

student of the Midwest was more middle-of-the-road in 1930 or, what is easier to believe, that he had not yet taken a position and, therefore, played safe with a relatively noncommittal response. The small Fort Wayne unit, with greater age and, presumably, greater experience, has apparently made up its mind, leaning toward a conservative, but not ultra-conservative, point of view. On the whole, Areas 1 and 2 show an interesting like-

ness for the two groups in the economic and socio-political reflect the broader social consciousness. The "Liberal" and the "Radical" percentages of both groups are again fairly close, and the "Conservative" figures are even closer. More of the subjects in both the Wisconsin and the Fort Wayne groups take reactionary positions in the sexual-family area than in any other. Twenty-two per cent of the Wisconsin

subjects and 41 per cent of the Fort Wayne subjects believe:

Strict monogamy is the only natural and respectable form of human sexual life. Society should, in no circumstances, tolerate any deviation from it, either in men or women.

Birth control is a problem with which man has no business meddling. There is no justification for any human attempt to interfere with the natural reproductive process.

The family is a sacred and permanent unit upon which our society and our happiness rest. The family must, above all things, be kept inviolate; to weaken the structure of the family means ruin and social chaos.

No young woman should ever, under any circumstances, be permitted an opportunity for sexual experience. A woman should, above all things, maintain virginity until the time of her marriage.

Sexual morality is one thing which is fixed and unchanging in the world. There is only one possible standard in this matter, and that is a fixed code of what is right and what is wrong—a code which applies equally to everybody at all times.

However, about one-quarter of both groups were somewhat less rigid in this belief (see the "Conservative" figures), and about the same fraction of Wisconsin students might, under proper circumstances, have moved either way (compare the "Middle-of-the-Road" percentages).

The religious area finds 28 per cent of Fort Waynians and 15 per cent of Wisconsin students in the "Reactionary" column. Religious affiliation seems to attenuate during college and possibly strengthens again in later life. Moreton found that the responses of 414 subjects of above-average intel-

ligence, aged seventeen to seventy-seven, reveal the group as a whole moderately favorable toward religion, although the great majority seldom, or never, attend church. Cessation of attendance at religious services occurs most frequently between fifteen and nineteen years of age.²

The sums of the "Reactionary" and the "Conservative" percentages show that Fort Wayne is most conservative in the sexual-family area. Close runner-up is the socio-political area, and next are the economic and the religious and personal orientation areas. In every area, half or more of the group is conservative. This trend is balanced by the inverted ranking of liberal opinions. The Wisconsin subjects, like Fort Wayne subjects, are most conservative in the sexual-family area. They are least conservative in the socio-political area and evenly divided in the economic and religious areas. In no area does the conservative fraction include half or more of the group. Fort Wayne subjects show a higher proportion of liberals and radicals combined in the economic and the religious areas; Wisconsin in the socio-political and sexual-family areas.

FINDINGS IN THE DATA OF THE FORT WAYNE GROUP

A sample of forty-six subjects hardly justifies a highly refined statistical

² F. E. Moreton, "Attitudes to Religion among Adolescents and Adults," *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, XIV (June, 1944), 69-79.

analysis. However, some trends in the data are provocative and, in addition, raise questions the answers to which might be found in a larger population selected more at random.

1. A mean score was computed for each individual and for the group as a whole. (Each subject made 20 choices; his score, therefore, was the mean of the sum of his choices of statements numbered from 1 to 5.) Individuals averaging between 1 and 2.5 for the four areas comprised 63 per cent of the group; those between 2.6 and 5.5, 9 per cent; and those between 3.6 and 5, 6 per cent. The group mean was 2.5, with a standard deviation of 0.65.

2. Age in decades ranged from 2 through 6 with a mean of 4.04 and a standard deviation of 1.1.

The means of scores of the four youngest and of the four oldest subjects were identical, 2.3. In the various areas, however, the four subjects over fifty years of age were slightly more liberal in the economic and religious areas and less liberal in the sexual-family and socio-political areas. The third decade group, with a mean of 2.3, contained no individual mean scores over 2.8. The fourth decade group, with a mean of 2.8, showed no score under 2.2. The critical ratio of the difference of these two groups is 2.38, indicating about 99 chances in 100 that the true difference is greater than zero. The fifth decade mean was 2.4. Mean scores of all decades except the fourth were practically the same.

3. Seventy-one per cent of the

scores of the subjects in the second decade were conservative; 20 per cent, liberal. The third-decade percentages were exactly the same. In the fourth decade 51 per cent were conservative; 34 per cent, liberal. In the fifth decade 60 per cent were conservative; 32 per cent, liberal. In the sixth, 57 per cent were conservative; 26 per cent, liberal.

4. The group as a whole showed the following means in the four areas: Area 1, 2.74; Area 2, 2.59; Area 3, 2.34; Area 4, 2.44. Of these, only the difference between Areas 1 and 3 is significant. The critical ratio here (2.66) indicates that there are 99.6 chances in 100 that the true difference is greater than zero. The group seems to be definitely more liberal in the economic than in the sexual-family sphere.

5. Sex differences do not seem consequential.³ Men averaged 2.7 as a group; women, 2.5. The men's conservative choices were 21 per cent of all the choices and the women's 20; the men's and women's middle, each 14 per cent; the men's liberal, 16 per cent and the women's 15 per cent.

During the administration of the inventory, a small subdivision on the "Education and Professional Functioning of Women" was inserted. The following five statements, though they cannot be equated in degree with Sheldon's material, nevertheless run the reactionary-liberal gamut:

³ Sheldon's percentages for his large group in no place show a sex difference greater than 5 per cent; nor, where they occur, are the small differences consistent in direction.

1. Women should not function professionally and require only a minimum education.

2. Women should not function professionally but require enough education, perhaps through high school, to assist their children in a complicated world.

3. Women should secure whatever education they wish but confine their activities, social or professional, to part-time volunteer work in the community.

4. Women should secure whatever education they wish, function professionally after marriage, but withdraw for two years for each child in order to give it a secure foundation.

5. Women should secure whatever education they wish, function professionally full time after marriage, and either share child-care and homemaking with their husbands or leave these duties to others.

No one in the group voted for Statement 1 or 2. Forty-eight per cent (this group includes all the men) voted for Statement 3; 15 per cent, for Statement 4; and 37 per cent, for Statement 5. Of the twenty-four women who voted for either Statement 4 or 5, sixteen had mean scores on Sheldon's inventory of 2.5 or under, four had scores of 3.1 or over. Conservative as most of these women were, and particularly in the sexual-family sphere, they apparently feel no contradiction between the sacredness of the family and its accompanying sexual morality and partial or complete professional freedom for women after marriage.

SUMMARY

In Fort Wayne, Indiana, a reasonably typical midwestern community, a group of forty-six adults, ranging in age from the second through the sixth

decade, recorded their attitudes on the twenty subdivisions of a conservative-radical inventory which surveyed four conscious thinking areas: economic, socio-political, sexual-family, and orientational-religious. Trends were first compared with those of a group of 3,000 University of Wisconsin students surveyed in 1930 by means of the same inventory, and then analyzed for unique tendencies. A comparison of the two groups shows:

1. Despite the lapse of seventeen years, differences in age range, educational average, and experience, the groups were close in the proportion of liberal opinion. More students hewed to the center, the older group showing more decided opinions. In all four areas, the proportion of conservative-reactionary opinion was higher in the Fort Wayne group, the differences in percentages ranging from 9 in the area of personal orientation and religious beliefs to 31 in the socio-political field.

2. The over-all data revealed that 41 per cent of the Wisconsin students and 58 per cent of the older group voted on the right of center; 31 per cent of the Wisconsin students and 29 per cent of the Fort Waynians voted left of center. However, the separate areas disclose a slightly larger proportion of Fort Wayne liberals in the economic and the religious spheres.

3. In the four areas, both groups proved most conservative in sexual-family attitudes; Wisconsin students, least in socio-political opinions; and Fort Wayne, least in religious opinions.

4. In Fort Wayne, 51-65 per cent of the group were conservative in all areas; in the Wisconsin student group, only 32-46 per cent.

5. Neither group showed sex differences.

A study of the data relating to the Fort Wayne group reveals:

1. The mean score for the group as a whole was 2.5. Sixty-three per cent of all mean scores fell between 1 and 2.5.

2. The second, third, fifth, and sixth age decades showed approximately the same mean scores. However, the difference between the scores of the third and the fourth decades proved significant in the direction of greater liberalism in the fourth-decade group. If this is more than a chance difference, no explanation is possible at this time.

3. The four areas of opinion ranked from most to least conservative as follows: sexual-family, socio-political, economic, religious. A real difference in degree of liberalism seems to exist between the economic and sexual-family spheres of thinking.

An examination of the added subdivision "Education and Professional Functioning of Women after Marriage," indicates:

1. No member of the group believed in limiting the education of women.

2. Forty-eight per cent, including all the men, believed in education for women but held that after-marriage functioning should be on a volunteer, part-time basis.

3. Fifteen per cent believed in professional functioning for women after marriage, with a two-year withdrawal for each child.

4. Thirty-seven per cent thought women should function professionally full time, either sharing all housekeeping and child care with their husbands or leaving these duties completely to other persons.

This study is preliminary to a larger projected survey of a more representative population in Fort Wayne. Age, educational level, occupation, income, religious affiliation, length of residence in the community, etc., are contemplated variables. It is hoped that investigators in other geographical areas will undertake concomitant comparable surveys.

TEACHING AND THE LIBRARY

THOMAS E. CARSON AND RUTH ANN DAVIES

Samuel Hamilton Junior High School

Ross Township, Allegheny County, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania



GOOD teachers are constantly searching for improved instructional procedures. Pupils are eager for interesting and varied sources of information. Both of these needs can be met by making the school library a vitalized part of the school's program of studies. The library can become the hub of the instructional procedure if it ceases to be the traditional reference center and is made available for use as part of the classroom and subject instruction.

Library materials are vital for an enriched school program. No longer are textbooks, which are limited in presenting a subject, the sole source of information. The library can supply material which will take up where the textbook leaves off; for it is the fountainhead of recreational and informational material that will add not only information but interest and zest to the subject material. This opportunity to contact many sources in addition to the textbook will provide for greater interest and understanding. It will arouse discussion and motivate the pupil who is untouched by the routine textbook and classroom procedure. It will provide a diversified activity that will make both teachers and pupils

aware of the value and contribution of the library and its resources.

A NEW LIBRARY PROGRAM

Six years ago our library was a traditional reference center, used only to satisfy reference assignments. Then a change was made from sporadic use to planned use. The teachers were encouraged by the school administrator to confer with the librarian, to survey the material that had something to contribute to their subjects, and to plan units of work and semester outlines with the library material as an integral part of the class work. In this way the teachers learned of existing materials, and the librarian became informed of subject needs, so that she could direct efforts toward obtaining the needed material.

Teachers and librarian now schedule classes to meet in the library for the supervised use of this material. Each class is scheduled for as many periods as necessary (see Table 1), and each class reports directly to the library rather than to the classroom. The librarian introduces the material, which has been previously collected in anticipation of the class visit, stressing the interest spot in each item and

showing how it fits into the unit's work. The material is both plentiful and diversified, so as to satisfy the needs of the slow, as well as the advanced, pupils, and it is geared to the reading ability and intelligence of the individual pupil. Data on the reading ability and intelligence of the pupils are obtained from a school-wide testing program, the results of which are given to the teachers and the librarian as a guide in distributing information to individual pupils. Both the teacher and the librarian supervise the use of this material and constantly point out the correct reading techniques to follow. Through this procedure the teacher becomes acquainted with the material being used by the class and can incorporate it into the classroom discussion.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE PROGRAM

The contributions which the library has to make to the subject fields are limitless. For example, the English department receives information on creative writing, short stories, historical novels, biographies, plays, public speaking, legends, and recreational reading. Home-economics classes have need of library material for a variety of topics, such as selection, care, and repair of clothes; types and wearing qualities of fabrics; remodeling of clothes; appropriate dress and grooming; budget-planning, instalment buying; home-planning, including blueprint-reading, types of building materials, and interior decorating; and

child care. Foods classes are interested in nutrition, menu-planning, etiquette, party-planning, invitations, table-setting, care of household appliances, and history and methods of food preservation.

Music classes find the library useful for information on history of music, types of compositions, stories of operas, biographies of musicians, and musical instruments. Science classes are provided with a wealth of material for study; for materials on prehistoric animals, disease, identification of plants and animals, heredity, radar, radio, electricity, light, heat, sound, penicillin, and the life and works of outstanding scientists are to be found in the library. History classes are interested in reading current events, biographies, materials about manners and customs of a people during a given period, information on historical events, and historical novels. Geography classes use library materials on transportation, communication, spices, fruits, beverages, cereals, industry, minerals, and conservation. Mathematics classes have found in the library helpful materials on charts, graphs, insurance, budgeting, and taxation.

Some persons who feel that this work could be developed in the classroom might question this library procedure. But could even a well-stocked classroom present to the pupils such a varied assortment of materials? Can a classroom ever be so well stocked that materials will be available to satisfy the many unexpected queries and

needs for information? In addition, in the library the same material may be used during one day by numerous pupils studying different subjects. Long-range fixing of the library schedule can be accomplished easily if lessons or units of work are planned in advance. Since our teachers have found the library serves a useful purpose, they have been willing to use this long-range planning.

In addition to enriching the subject fields, this library-centered program has stimulated our pupils' interest in recreational reading. It has been gratifying to see the number of books read voluntarily by the pupils. Having become acquainted with its resources the pupils have made the library a part of their school life. The pupils in Grades VIII-X have read voluntarily an average of thirty books during a school year of 180 days. In a recent library survey, developed through the co-operative efforts of the English department, the library, and the school administration, we found that pupils in the low-intelligence group were reading as much as those in the average and the high groups. This large amount of reading on the part of the slower pupils has been made possible by having a large selection of fiction which has interest for the typical adolescent but is written on a lower reading level. The librarian also provides direction and suggestions when these pupils voluntarily ask for books. The reading survey showed that all interest fields of fiction were being

sampled by all pupils in all grades—an indication that an introduction to all types of material has stimulated lasting interests. Our community, a suburban township adjacent to Pittsburgh (Pennsylvania), is not unlike other suburban communities. It appears, therefore, that this program could be successfully developed in other areas.

With the co-operation and supervision of the school administration, teachers and librarians can set up a library program as a part of the classroom procedure. Teachers will, however, need encouragement to take this step, and librarians will require assistance in obtaining materials and in scheduling. There need be no fear that the library will not be used adequately; for, with such a program, the library will be scheduled to capacity and will contribute directly to the educational program. Librarians, whether in large or small schools, will also find that the program is practical. It should be noted also that the demand for financial expenditures is not great in a program of this type. Pupils, teachers, and librarian, after discussion and examination of available publications, will suggest materials that are useful. Books purchased through co-operative recommendation will not gather dust on the shelves. School libraries are vital sources for instruction that are greatly overlooked in our schools. They can provide for an enriched school program if given the chance.

MULTIPLE GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS: A PROPOSAL FOR THE CLASSROOM

HUGH R. WALPOLE

University of Chicago



DURING the past fifty years, educationists have argued a great deal over whether or not it is useful to introduce any purely grammatical work into the English-language classroom.¹ We can scarcely expect the controversy ever to be settled, especially since there is no definition of *grammar* that is generally accepted. This article will suggest that formal work in grammar is desirable, though its benefits are of limited value, and that the main difficulties are that teachers who use a grammatical approach overdo it and that, in employing it, they focus attention on lengthy and wordy complexities of statement instead of dealing with the typical simplicities of the English language.

Obviously anyone who speaks uses grammar. Every sentence we utter is either imitated *in toto* or built up by means of grammatical analogy.² That

is, whenever we say anything, we must necessarily adopt one of two courses. (1) We may echo, word for word, a sentence that we have heard uttered by another person, or (2) we may adapt to suit our present purposes a model sentence that we have heard or used previously. Evidently grammar consists of a set of model constructions which we carry about, as it were, in our heads. When we are behaving like human beings and not like educators, most of us feel little resemblance between the grammatical terms of dictionary or textbook and the way we operate our own living communicative processes. Still, it does not seem unreasonable to suggest that students of both schools and colleges could gain in communicative power by acquiring more insight into how these processes work. Perhaps our school grammar is sometimes unsuccessful because it departs too far from our natural grammar.

CLASSIFICATION BY NUMBERS

It may be that our conventional terminology of *parts of speech* and all the rest of it is more misleading than

¹ For a discussion of this question, see Hugh R. Walpole, "Promoting Development in Interpreting What Is Read in the Middle and Upper Grades," *The Appraisal of Current Practices in Reading*, pp. 162-67. Compiled and edited by William S. Gray. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 61. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945.

² One of the best and clearest accounts of grammar as analogy from a member of the "linguistic-science" school of linguists may be

found in Edgar Howard Sturtevant, *An Introduction to Linguistic Science*, chap. x. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1947.

helpful. *Parts of speech* are supposed to refer to, and to classify, the different functions that words can fulfil in action. However, we get into the habit of attaching these classifications to dictionary words—as if a word in the dictionary could have a grammatical function! *Lake* is a noun. *Like* is ——— what? “*Like, unlike, and near* [says Webster] with a noun or pronoun in the objective case, resemble the pure prepositions but . . .”³ Omar Khayyam had his own way of dealing with such entanglements:

Another and another cup to drown
The memory of this impertinence!

We are constantly snared into the habit of expecting a word in the abstract to *be a noun*, or an *adjective*, or something. A word in the dictionary never has grammatical function; a word in a sentence always has.

There are many advantages in the complete avoidance of the names of parts of speech, for which a numerical classification should be substituted. First, pupils, and sometimes teachers, are so deeply convinced that there is only one right way to classify words in sentences that they will rebel against flexibility in classification. For instance, most of us may be shocked, at first glance, by the idea of classifying *us* (in “He spoke to us two”) as an adjective. If, however, the phrase

were *those two*, we should not mind attributing the adjectival function to *those*, and certainly we should object to the pronominal *them* of *them two*. It is less startling to classify *us / two* as $5 / 2$ and more in line with the task which grammatical classifications are supposed to perform. Second, it is easier to write numbers on the blackboard or on exercise papers than to write the customary terms. Third, according to this method of teaching grammar, the numbers are introduced, not as substitutes for grammatical terms, but as denoting analogies to the ways in which words have been used in certain model sentences. The thousands of vade mecum models which constitute our personal grammar can be exemplified by about twenty key sentences.⁴ A study of these master-models, with each word suitably numbered according to its grammatical function, will soon give the student the general “feel” of the eight grammatical functions.

In this brief explanation of the eight numbers, I shall have recourse to the conventional terminology. Such terms as *noun* and *verb* are never necessary in the classroom, but they are used in this article to save time. The eight functions are:

- | | |
|--------------|----------------|
| 1. Noun | 5. Adjective |
| 2. Pronoun | 6. Adverb |
| 3. Verb | 7. Preposition |
| 4. Auxiliary | 8. Conjunction |

A ninth category for interjections seems unnecessary; for these words

³ Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, p. 580. Springfield, Massachusetts: G. & C. Merriam Co., 1936 (fifth edition).

I suggest as the “first canon of grammar” the statement, “Every word can fulfil, or help to fulfil, any one of the eight grammatical functions.”

⁴ This point is elaborated in Hugh R. Walpole, *op. cit.*

can be regarded either as performing Function 6, which contains the "miscellaneous" file, or else as being *pro-sentences*, in much the same way that a pronoun is a *pro-noun* and an auxiliary is often a *pro-verb*.

At its simplest level, then, analysis consists in assigning to each word in a sentence a number designating its grammatical function. "I / will / see / you / tomorrow" is classified 2 / 4 / 3 / 2 / 6. Even this elementary procedure is of value. Used with the added refinements to be proposed, such analysis is, it seems to me, startlingly effective as an instrument for revealing facts about the nature of language.

There are two further details concerning the numbering system. With Function 3 we must distinguish copulative, transitive, and intransitive verbs. Obviously, "John bought a radio" (1 / 3 [transitive] / 5 / 1) differs from "John is a halfback" (1 / 3 [copulative] / 5 / 1). We also need to assign a secondary number to each conjunction, or joining-word, to indicate its additional function. *And* and *as well as* will often be pure conjunctions (8.8); *but* and *though* usually have adverbial overtones (8.6); and *who* will also be a pronoun (8.2). A simple word-for-word analysis of "That is the man who bought the house" is: 2 / 3 [copulative] / 5 / 1 / 8.2 / 3 [transitive] / 5 / 1.

ANALOGY AND RIVAL ANALYSES

The chief purpose of this article is to urge that every sentence considered

should be analyzed in alternative ways.⁵ This proposal is best supported by a return to grammatical first principles, to the point that every new sentence uttered in speech is invented through the process of analogic creation. The little son of a friend of mine adjured his father, while they were playing, "Don't fall me down, Daddy." We are all accustomed to hearing children invent words like *foots*, *tooths*, *taked*, *letted*, *goed*. Sturtevant gives a delightful example of a little girl in Mobile, Alabama, who replied when she was told to behave, "I *am* being haive!"⁶ The child no doubt patterned her adjectival use of *haive* on some such word as *good*. Sturtevant knows two more instances, occurring in New York and in Wisconsin, of this same creation, in which *haive* has been coined independently.

Outside of academic preoccupations, it seems that an adult thinks consciously about grammar only when he comes across childish errors based on mistaken analogy or when a sentence that he is formulating is pulled in different directions by rival analogies. Some constructions cause enough doubts and general difficulties for official grammatical etiquette to pro-

⁵ Not admitting the perennial subject-predicate (1 / 3 [intransitive]) analysis, which is nearly always feasible. This multiple analysis is the grammatical equivalent of the multiple-definition techniques practiced by C. K. Ogden and I. A. Richards. See, for example, *The Meaning of Meaning*, pp. 142-43. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., 1936.

⁶ Edgar Howard Sturtevant, *op. cit.*, p. 98.

nounce decisions to the advantage of this rival or that. In English, present-day etiquette favors *than I* and *like me*, allotting to *than* and *like*, respectively, Functions 8 and 7 in these instances. Perhaps such *ex cathedra* judgments have little effect on words as they are actually used.

In the classroom, literary English may be more generally suitable for analysis, though occasionally examples of street speech might be examined. When we look at the English actually spoken, we find much that is unliterary. In Chicago and elsewhere, for instance, *better* is often an auxiliary. "You better go home quick" (2 / 4 / 3 [intransitive] / 6 / 6).

If the reader will grant that every sentence follows as a model some other sentence, he will surely agree also that, although the same sentence may be uttered independently by millions of persons in precisely the same words, it would be a miracle if all those individual inventors reached their sentence along the same route, by following the same analogy. Therefore, when two persons pronounce the same sentence, that sentence may well have two different grammatical constructions. It would be valuable pedagogically to possess techniques that enabled a student to become aware, first, of his own unconscious grammatical mechanisms and, then, of those of other persons.

Multiple grammatical analysis answers these purposes and will also suggest to the student means and devices to increase his flexibility in using a

greater variety of linguistic mechanisms in his own speech, writing, and thinking. Instead of burdening his memory with abstract rules, it makes him sensitive to the constructions of the English spoken around him. According to Fries:

All the effort which goes to make one *conscious* of "rules of grammar" serves to deaden this sensitiveness to one's speech environment and to turn one's attention away from the only sources of real knowledge.⁷

Only in some such way as that proposed in this article can we help a student to judge for himself between good and bad English. In his detailed study of differences between Standard English and Vulgar English, Fries finds the Standard group superior not so much in correctness as in resourcefulness, flexibility, and the spirit of experimentation:

In fact, in most cases, the actual deviation of the language of the uneducated from Standard English grammar seemed much less than is usually assumed, and in practically all instances was in the direction of greater conservatism The most striking difference between the language of the two groups lay in the fact that Vulgar English seems essentially poverty stricken. It uses less of the resources of the language, and a few forms are used very frequently.⁸

Analytical classroom work in language, then, must be correlated with exercises in oral and written composition.

⁷ Charles Carpenter Fries, *American English Grammar*, p. 286. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1940.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 288.

The discussion arising in a classroom about specific examples of multiple analysis will rapidly shed light on areas usually shadowed by cumbersome nomenclature. With a sentence such as, "The rest of the guests are coming later," if *the rest* is taken as a

In a complete English course, some attention will be paid to the constructions of compound and complex sentences, but much more attention will be given to short sentences and variable word groups, which constitute the heart of the language. The student's

The Romans made an attempt to invade.

- A. The / Romans / made / an / attempt / to / invade.
 5 / 1 / 3 (tr.) / 5 / 1 / 7 / 3 (int.)
- B. The Romans / made an attempt / to invade.
 1 / 3 (tr.) / 1
- C. The Romans / made an attempt to / invade.
 1 / 4 / 3 (int.)
- D. The Romans / made / an attempt / to invade.
 1 / 3 (tr.) / 1 / 5

The leaves turned into gold.

- A. The / leaves / turned / into / gold.
 5 / 1 / 3 (int.) / 7 / 1
- B. The leaves / turned / into gold.
 1 / 3 (int.) / 6
- C. The leaves / turned into / gold.
 1 / 3 (c.) / 1

We are looking at the picture.

- A. We / are looking / at / the / picture.
 2 / 3 (int.) / 7 / 5 / 1
- B. We / are looking / at the picture.
 2 / 3 (int.) / 6
- C. We / are looking at / the picture.
 2 / 3 (tr.) / 1

noun or pronoun (the rest / of the guests—1 / 5), the discussion will link and compare *the rest* with other terms, like *some* and *all*, which also may accompany a plural or a singular verb form. However, some students will undoubtedly prefer to regard *the guests* as the subject (the rest of / the guests—5 / 1). Both analyses are tenable and can be supported by parallels.

task of multiple analysis will be to analyze each sentence in at least two credible ways, and preferably in more than two. Some possible analyses of three simple sentences are presented in the diagram shown above. They are, of course, not exhaustive.

Of great interest for analysis and discussion are sentences like the following.

These books are two dollars.
The package weighs six pounds.
The journey lasted two hours.
The boy ran two miles.

No suggestion offered seriously by a student should be ignored or frowned on, but the student should be asked to construct a parallel sentence to exemplify and support his analysis. Students develop a new outlook on grammar when they discover that they no longer have to believe in single correct answers, which are somehow mysteriously hidden from them.

In later stages of this kind of exercise, all the suggested analyses of a given sentence may be classified by the students themselves into some such categories as *good*, *possible*, and *impossible*. The instructor, however, does well if he avoids condemning even the wildest decision of any student. That decision represents one of the student's ways of appraising the sentence and perhaps also represents his way of using it when he talks. Everybody who speaks English is a competent linguist on the practical side, and it is possible that the forces of development and change in English operate on a lower level of linguistic consciousness than is represented by any of our students.

GRAMMAR AND INTERPRETATION

The goal of all our school and college work in English is improvement in interpretation and communication. Symbolism—the study of language—may, for educational purposes, be regarded under the three aspects of phonetics, grammar, and semantics. These divisions, of course, represent convenient abstractions; for in the normal use of language the three aspects are never separated. It seems desirable, however, to introduce some fundamental phonetics and grammar into the high-school curriculum. After his high-school education, a person who tries to use English conscientiously does not cease to be a grammarian, but he combines his grammar with other more important considerations.

The device of multiple analysis, which this article describes, requires no diagrams or elaborate sets of rules. It is designed to improve a student's use of English by increasing his awareness of the way in which the language functions in sentences. By obliging him to weigh alternative possibilities of analysis, it should also sharpen his faculties of interpretation. Useful grammar touches phonetics on one side and semantics on the other.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

II. THE SUBJECT FIELDS



THE same grouping of subject fields is being followed for the lists of references in the February and March numbers of the *School Review* as was used in the cycles of lists published during 1933-47, inclusive. The concept of "instruction" is also the same and includes curriculum, methods of teaching and study and supervision, and measurement. In each subject field the list includes items published during a period of approximately twelve months since the preparation of the list appearing last year.

ENGLISH¹

DORA V. SMITH

University of Minnesota

48. BASFORD, EMORY S. "The Aims of English Teaching in Secondary Schools in the Light of Current Thinking on Humanistic Education," *English Leaflet*, XLVI (February, 1947), 17-29.

¹ See also Item 348 (Baker and Others) in the list of selected references appearing in the April, 1947, number of the *School Review*, Item 392 (Johnson) in the May, 1947, number, Item 699 (Erskine) and Item 715 (Johnson) in the December, 1947, number, and Items 45 (Diederich) and 48 (White) in the January, 1948, number of the same journal; and Item 421 (Gray), Item 423 (Handlan), Item 439 (Traxler and Townsend), Item 446 (Dale), Item 465 (Taba and Others), and Item 467 (Watts) in the October, 1947, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

Re-examines "the aims of English-teaching in secondary schools . . . with particular reference to the Report of the Harvard Committee, the Report of the Yale Committee, and the Report of the Second Annual Conference held by the Stanford School of Humanities."

49. BLESSIN, HILDA. "The Short Story Helps Group Understanding," *American Unity*, V (February, 1947), 9-14, 19-23.

Describes a short-story unit for Grade X, which is planned to foster better personal and group adjustments.

50. CARLSEN, G. R. "Understanding the American Heritage: A Classroom Experience," *English Journal*, XXXVI (March, 1947), 116-20.

Presents, through a unified eleventh-grade program taught by a history and an English teacher, the materials used to reveal American cultural backgrounds.

51. CHRISTENSEN, GLENN J. "A Decade of Radio Drama," *College English*, VIII (January, 1947), 179-85.

Evaluates the work of MacLeish, Benét, Oboler, and Corwin in a valuable historical account of radio drama.

52. "A Community Deals with the Reading Program," *English Leaflet*, XLVI (January, 1947), 1-7.

Describes the reading program carried on by teachers of all subjects in the secondary schools of Windsor, Connecticut.

53. FOWLER, RUSSEL H. "Development of Communications Skills through Reading and Analysis," *Junior College*

- Journal*, XVII (February, 1947), 248-52.
- Describes a course in modern realistic reading for superior students exempt from Freshman English at Stephens College.
54. FRAZIER, ALEXANDER. "Films Motivate English Activities," *Educational Screen*, XXVI (February, 1947), 81-83.

Describes a project carried on in thirty schools to use films as a basis for discussion, writing, and reading in English classes. The article was also published under the title "Using Short Films To Motivate English Activities," Curriculum Monograph E-32, published by the Office of the County Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, California, in 1946.

 55. GRAY, WILLIAM S. "The Social Effects of Reading," *School Review*, LV (May, 1947), 269-77.

Summarizes valuable recent research on the effects of reading on attitudes, and vice versa.

 56. GREENE, HARRY A. "Direct versus Formal Methods in Elementary English," *Elementary English*, XXIV (May, 1947), 273-85.

Adds to accumulating evidence of the superiority of a direct versus a grammatical attack on problems of sentence structure and punctuation common in high school.

 57. GREY, LENNOX. "Communication Arts and the Humanities," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, XXIV (March, 1947), 81-89.

Challenges programs in junior colleges and community institutes to recognize the importance of communication and the humanities.

 58. HARTLEY, HELENE W. "English for These Times: Some Issues and Implications," *English Journal*, XXXVI (February, 1947), 60-65.

Discusses varied avenues by which teachers of English attempt to define and meet the needs of "these times."

 59. HATFIELD, W. WILBUR. "Parallels in Teaching Students To Listen and To Read," *English Journal*, XXXV (December, 1946), 553-58.

Probes into the problems of teaching how to listen by stimulating comparison and contrast with reading skills.

 60. LASH, JOHN S. "The American Negro in American Literature: A Selected Bibliography of Critical Materials," *Journal of Negro Education*, XV (Fall, 1946), 722-30.

Presents an invaluable annotated list of anthologies and critical writings on the contributions of the Negro to American literature.

 61. LASS, ABRAHAM H., and SMERLING, FRANK A. "The English Teacher and the Slow Pupil," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXIX (February, 1947), 5-12.

Analyzes sympathetically the problems of the slow pupil and gives practical suggestions for classroom work.

 62. LASSERS, LEON. "Oregon's Speech Improvement and Rehabilitation Program," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXXIII (February, 1947), 61-68.

Gives a comprehensive account of a practical state program in speech from the teacher-training institutions down.

 63. LOUGHLIN, RICHARD L. "A Philosophy of Public Speaking," *Educational Forum*, XI (November, 1946), 55-65.

Presents a spirited plan for selecting topics and organizing and presenting ideas in public speaking which applies equally well to writing.

 64. MILES, LOUELLA. *One World in School*. Montgomery, Alabama: American Teachers Association, 1946. Pp. x+58.

Presents a comprehensive bibliography and teaching aids for intercultural education in American schools.

 65. NEPRUDE, VERA. "Literature in Veterans' Education," *English Journal*, XXXVI (June, 1947), 310-16.

- Describes a program of broad reading, topically organized and individualized, for readers of varied abilities in the Marshall Veterans' Center in Minneapolis, Minnesota.
66. NORVELL, GEORGE W. "Some Results of a Twelve-Year Study of Children's Reading Interests," *English Journal*, XXXV (December, 1946), 531-36.
Describes selection and elimination of literature on the combined basis of pupil interest and teacher judgment of worth in a twelve-year study which used 50,000 pupils and 625 teachers in New York State.
67. PRESTON, RALPH C. "How English Teachers Can Help Retarded Readers," *English Journal*, XXXVI (March, 1947), 137-40.
Discourages segregation into clinics except for most seriously retarded pupils and describes a normal program in the English class to meet the needs of varied learners.
68. RANOUS, CHARLES A. "What Is English?" *Educational Forum*, XI (January, 1947), 173-83.
Urges, as a basis for language-teaching, observation of how written and spoken language operate today.
69. RIDER, VIRGINIA. "Modern Drama Educates for Tolerance," *English Journal*, XXXVI (January, 1947), 16-22.
Gives an excellent outline of procedures and materials of a unit on modern drama organized around class discrimination, race prejudice, and economic inequalities in an English class of Grade XII at the Laboratory High School, Marshall College, Huntington, West Virginia.
70. ROODY, SARAH I. "Developing Personality through Literature," *English Journal*, XXXVI (June, 1947), 299-304.
Describes a novel use of modern realistic fiction to develop mental health and a consciousness of escape mechanisms.
71. SCHMIDT, MILDRED. "An Appreciation of Patterns of Living," *English Journal*, XXXVI (May, 1947), 235-43.
- Describes a fascinating English program used in University School, Ohio State University, to help students dispel stereotypes and appreciate other peoples by a study of their customs, their beliefs, and their sense of values.
72. SMITH, DORA V. "The Progress of the NCTE Curriculum Study," *English Journal*, XXXVI (February, 1947), 66-73.
Describes the program and organization of the national curriculum study of the National Council of Teachers of English.
73. SMITH, HENRY LESTER; DUGDALE, KATHLEEN; STEELE, BEULAH FARIS; and MCELHINNEY, ROBERT STEWART. *One Hundred Fifty Years of Grammar Textbooks*. Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XXII, Nos. 5 and 6. Bloomington, Indiana: Division of Research and Field Services, School of Education, Indiana University, 1946. Pp. 200.
Reviews the physical makeup, introductory and supplementary material, content, and method of twenty-seven grammar and language books which were published between 1795 and 1945.
74. STAUDENMAYER, MAUDE S. "Study of the News," *Clearing House*, XXI (January, 1947), 288-91.
Makes a plea for developing critical habits of newspaper-reading as basic to a well-informed citizenry.
75. STRANG, RUTH. "Reading Interests, 1946," *English Journal*, XXXV (November, 1946), 477-82.
Discusses the "ways and wishes" of adolescents in reading revealed through novel methods of questioning.
76. UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE, DIVISION OF PUBLIC LIAISON. "The Significance of UNESCO from Six Viewpoints: Mass Media," *School Executive*, LXVI (October, 1946), 83-84.
Reviews recent emphasis on mass media of communication and the plans of UNESCO for their use.

77. WEEKS, RUTH MARY. "Teaching Tolerance through Literature," *English Journal*, XXXV (October, 1946), 425-32.
Gives examples of many ways in which English teachers in Paseo High School (Kansas City, Missouri) promote good will through literature and presents helpful references to books and book lists.
78. WICKE, MYRON F. "Literature and Integration," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVII (December, 1946), 474-76.
Makes a plea for literature as the integrating core of the program in high school and college.
79. WILLIAMS, MENTOR L. "On Teaching Our Democratic Heritage," *College English*, VIII (January, 1947), 186-92.
Urges removing literature from cluttering details of its period and relating its generalizations to contemporary life.
80. WITTY, PAUL. "Reading Problems in the Secondary School," *School and Society*, LXV (February 15, 1947), 113-16.
Refutes the statement in *Harper's Magazine* that one-third of the high-school population is nonverbal and urges a carefully planned developmental and remedial program.
81. YEAGER, W. H., and UTTERBACK, W. E. (editors). "Communication and Social Action," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCL (March, 1947), 1-129.
Analyzes the basic character of the impact of radio, press, group discussion, and moving pictures on public opinion and world action.
- Supervision, XXXII (November, 1946), 478-92.
Relates trends in the social-studies curriculum, from 1899 to 1916, to the victory of growth psychology over faculty psychology and Herbartianism.
83. ANDER, O. F. "Our Aims and Plans for Teaching State and Local History in Rock Island County," *Educational Press Bulletin*, XXXVIII (April-May, 1947), 18-22.
Describes co-operation of educational agencies in introducing local-history study into public schools.
84. ANDER, O. F., and PHILLIPS, HAZEL. "State Historical Societies and the Teaching of History," *Social Education*, XI (January, 1947), 22-24.
Presents suggestions for reconciling education for world consciousness and tolerance with proper use of materials of state and local history.
85. ANDERSON, G. LESTER. "Field Trip from Britain," *See and Hear*, II (March, 1947), 22, 45.
Reviews favorably the British film "Near Home," which shows how pupils carry on community study.
86. ANDERSON, HOWARD R. "Can the Schools Teach International Understanding?" *Educational Leadership*, V (October, 1947), 24-28.
Points out the need for the use of information and skills related to problems recognized as significant for sympathetic understanding and for straight thinking rather than propaganda for unlimited international co-operation.

* See also Item 683 (Carleton) in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1947, number of the *School Review*, Item 78 (Williams) in the present number of the same journal; and Item 421 (Gray), Item 495 (Chrisman), Item 496 (Crary), Item 499 (King), Item 500 (Memler and Alvord), Item 505 (Quillen), Item 506 (Seay), and Item 508 (Thursfield) in the October, 1947, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

THE SOCIAL STUDIES*

ROBERT E. KEOHANE
University of Chicago

82. ALILUNAS, LEO J. "The Effect of Changes in American Psychological Thought upon the Study of School History," *Educational Administration and*

87. BALDWIN, JAMES W. "Recent Developments in Social Studies Evaluation," *Social Education*, XI (February, 1947), 74-76.
Emphasizes evaluation in instruction, as a prelude to educational experimentation, and stresses use of nonobjective techniques.
88. BARTON, EDWIN M. "Social Studies in New Jersey Secondary Schools," *Social Education*, XI (January, 1947), 29-31.
Presents the pattern of courses in 1944-45 and the percentages of students taking them. Gives the results of the requirement of two years of United States history in high school since 1945.
89. BEEKMANN, EMMA. "How a Mid-western Community Prepares Young People for Citizenship," *Social Education*, XI (May, 1947), 197-201.
Appraises realistically the influence of community processes on social education. Notes the limitation that "the spirit and practice of free inquiry and discussion were not present in respect to the community itself."
90. BRAMELD, THEODORE B. H. "Minority Problems in the Public Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXII (October, 1947), 182-93.
Discusses techniques of administration, of student and community relationships, of curriculum and extra-curriculum activities to improve intercultural relations.
91. BRINKMAN, ALBERT H. "World History: A Survey," *Social Studies*, XXXVIII (November, 1947), 309-13.
Reviews the development of the subject for the past thirty years.
92. BURKHARDT, RICHARD W. "Report on a Test of Information about the Soviet Union in American Secondary Schools," *American Slavic and East European Review*, V (November, 1946), 1-28.
Reports test results in detail and recommends that more time be given to, and more discriminating selection of content be made in, social-studies courses in which the Soviet Union is treated. Includes the text of the test.
93. CARR, WILLIAM G. "On the Waging of Peace," *NEA Journal*, XXXVI (October, 1947), 495-500.
Suggests significant ways of educating for international peace.
94. COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP OF THE AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATION, HOWARD Y. MCCLUSKEY (chairman) and OTHERS. "Education for Citizenship," *Review of Educational Research*, XVII (October, 1947), 256-99.
Presents a three-year bibliographical review of the subject, organized around (1) general education, (2) intergroup education, (3) social studies, and (4) adult education for citizenship.
95. COOKE, W. HENRY. *The Teaching of International and Intercultural Understanding in the Public Schools of California*. San Francisco, California: International Center (68 Post Street), 1946. Pp. 82.
Surveys school practices and appraises realistically the obstacles to effective intercultural education. Contains a useful bibliography.
96. COTTRELL, W. F. "What Should Be Taught about Other Governments," *Social Education*, X (December, 1946), 351-54.
A regional approach to comparative government at the high-school level stresses the influence of a people's values on the character of its government.
97. COUNTS, GEORGE S. "Soviet Version of American History," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, X (Fall, 1946), 321-28.
Shows how the rigorous application of a single interpretation can distort a rich history.
98. "Curriculum Problems in the Teaching of Social Studies," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXII (November, 1947), 391-422.

Reports on teacher opinion and methods in teaching United States history, education for peace, good citizenship, etc.

99. DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS. *Promising Practices in Intergroup Education*. Detroit, Michigan: Administrative Committee on Intercultural Education, Board of Education, 1947. Pp. 46.

This "Summary of Practices Reported for the Year 1945-46 from 152 Public Schools in Detroit," emphasizes planning for local needs and the importance of the process in fifteen approaches to intergroup education.

100. DIMOND, STANLEY E., and WESTON, GRACE L. "Youth Lives Democracy," *Educational Leadership*, V (October, 1947), 35-40.

Presents the Detroit Citizenship Education Study's formulation of characteristics and techniques of education for democracy.

101. DUNHAM, W. H., JR., and MENDENHALL, T. C., II. "Clio Need Not Be Bemused," *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, XXXII (Autumn, 1946), 496-513.

Describes a college introductory course planned to present the sweep and complexity of history and "to demonstrate to the undergraduate the principles upon which historical reasoning is based and then let him test them out."

102. ENGLE, SHIRLEY H. "Factors in the Teaching of Our Persistent Modern Problems," *Social Education*, XI (April, 1947), 167-69.

Emphasizes ways of achieving the "forgotten purpose" for teaching modern problems—helping students to come to valid conclusions and, in so doing, "to develop a discipline . . . in accord with valid principles of critical thinking."

103. ESTERQUEST, FRANK L. "History without Chronology or Geography," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XXXIII (March, 1947), 629-39.

Tests of some college Freshmen reveal amazing ignorance of basic concepts of chronology and geography.

104. FRAZIER, ALEXANDER. "Shall We Teach the Status System?" *School Review*, LX (February, 1947), 93-98.

Presents detailed suggestions for a twelfth-grade unit.

105. HABBERTON, WILLIAM. "Objectives of World History," *Social Education*, XI (April, 1947), 156-58.

A balanced analysis in terms of social knowledge, social skills, and social conscience.

106. HAFEMANN, HENRIETTA. "Vitalizing Intercultural Relations," *Chicago Schools Journal*, XXVIII (January-June, 1947), 54-61.

Emphasizes the role of motion pictures, outside speakers, and recordings in intergroup education through an international-relations class and club.

107. HAND, HAROLD C. "Education for Survival," *Educational Leadership*, IV (October, 1946), 4-11.

Presents revolutionary suggestions for education in an atomic age.

108. HARTLEY, WILLIAM H. (editor). *Audio-visual Materials and Methods in the Social Studies*. Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1947. Pp. xiv+214.

Stresses the values and techniques of audio-visual materials. Includes twenty-one chapters, with a general bibliography and source list of materials.

109. HENDRICKS, LUTHER V. *James Harvey Robinson: Teacher of History*. New York: King's Crown Press, Columbia University, 1946. Pp. xii+120.

Evaluates Robinson's contribution to history-teaching in college and high school, stressing comprehensiveness, close relations with other social studies, selection in terms of current problems, and liberating mental influence.

110. HENRY, GEORGE H. "Our Best English Unit," *English Journal*, XXXVI (September, 1947), 356-62.
A frank discussion of educational values versus community pressures as illustrated by high-school study of Negro education in a border state.
111. HERRICK, THERAL T. *School Patterns for Citizenship Training*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Bureau of Educational Reference and Research, School of Education, University of Michigan, 1947. Pp. 130.
Discusses student participation in school government and in community projects, democratic instructional techniques, and the evaluation of school citizenship.
112. HERSKOVITS, MELVILLE J. "The Social Science Units of the Northwestern University Liberal Arts Program," *Journal of General Education*, I (April, 1947), 216-23.
Discusses a two-year sequence in the Freshman and Sophomore years which uses the historical and the problems approaches. Describes the content and the methods.
113. HOVDE, BRYN J. "A Needed Program of International Education," *Educational Record*, XXXVIII, Supplement No. 16 (January, 1947), 14-34.
Calls for a continuous program consciously directed toward education for peace and specifies the elements of such a program.
114. HUDSON, ROBERT B. "Civic Education via the Radio," *National Municipal Review*, XXXVI (April, 1947), 189-93.
Describes programs in Syracuse, New York, and other cities.
115. HUNSUCKER, FLORISE. "A Practical Project in Civics," *Social Education*, XI (March, 1947), 120-22.
Describes a co-operative study of Indiana's constitution, which was undertaken by high-school students of five counties.
116. "Intercultural Education," *High School Journal*, XXX (October, 1947), 183-230.
Presents workshop reports on intercultural education in the South.
117. ISAACS, WILLIAM, and KOLODNY, JULES. "Can Propaganda Promote Democratic Education?" *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXIX (September, 1947), 28-40.
Argues that, as critical thinking is the essence of democratic education, it should be carried out at all levels, with variations to suit age, intellectual ability, and special interests. This article presents a penetrating analysis.
118. JENSEN, GRANT W. "The Recorder in the Social Studies Classroom," *Social Studies*, XXXVIII (November, 1947), 304-7.
Discusses the techniques of using recording apparatus as part of the regular classroom work.
119. KEOHANE, ROBERT E. "The Use of Primary Sources in the Teaching of Local and State History in High School," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XXXIII (December, 1946), 455-60.
Considers the use of sources as supplementary reading in community study, as an introductory unit for a history course, to illustrate broad historical movements and to teach elements of historical method.
120. KEOHANE, ROBERT E. "Teaching Critical Thinking for Our Time," *Council Courier* (Bulletin of Kentucky Council for the Social Studies), VII (May, 1947), 5-14.
Considers the relations in social education of (1) knowledge, (2) habits of critical thinking, and (3) civic allegiances. Discusses the school's task of educating for a delicate balance of consensus and "dis-sensus." Presents a selected bibliography on teaching for critical thinking.
121. KLEE, LORETTA E. "The Far East in Ithaca's Social-Studies Curriculum," *Clearing House*, XXI (March, 1947), 387-90.

Shows how to find time to introduce new and needed content into a curriculum based on major social concepts and generalized understandings.

122. McLENDON, JONATHAN C., JR. "The South in Social Studies Textbooks," *Social Education*, X (December, 1946), 341-44.

Reports inadequate attention to the South.

123. McMURRY, DOROTHY. *Herbartian Contributions to History Instruction in American Elementary Schools*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 920. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946. Pp. viii+172.

An important contribution to an understanding of a neglected area in the history of American social education. The book is of some value for the history of social studies at the secondary-school level.

124. "Major Projects in the Social Studies," *Co-operation in General Education*, pp. 118-41. Washington: American Council on Education, 1947.

This is the "Final Report of the Executive Committee of the Co-operative Study in General Education." It reports on studies of social attitudes and procedures for promoting critical thinking on social issues among college students.

125. MARY VIRGINIA, SISTER. "The Study of Family History in a Minnesota College," *Minnesota History*, XXVII (December, 1946), 319-26.

Shows how genealogical material adds interest to, and trains in, historical method.

126. MICHAELIS, JOHN U. "Current Instructional Problems in Secondary-School Social Studies," *Social Education*, X (November, 1946), 307-10.

Presents a study of teachers' and administrators' opinions of the important problems in social studies in high schools.

127. NIETZ, JOHN A., and MASON, WAYNE E. "Evolution of Civil Government as

a School Subject," *Social Education*, XI (October, 1947), 252-54.

Cites evidence to show that there was considerable formal study of American government in our schools before 1850.

128. NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION STUDENT PANEL. "What the High Schools Are Doing To Develop National and International Understanding," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXII (October, 1947), 194-207.

The Chicago area panel of high-school students reports on progressive practices for developing international understanding.

129. OESTE, GEORGE I. (editor). *American Leadership in a Disordered World*. Proceedings, 1945-46, of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies, Vol. XLIII. Philadelphia: George I. Oeste (Olney High School), 1946. Pp. viii+88.

Considering the role of the social studies in the atomic age, Walter Myers, Dwight C. Miner, and others emphasize education for political and world leadership.

- ✓ 130. OJEMANN, RALPH H., NUGENT, ANNE, and CORV, MARTHA. "Study of Human Behavior in the Social Science Program," *Social Education*, XI (January, 1947), 25-28.

Reports an interesting trial of materials in a ninth-grade social-studies class, in which functional understanding and appreciation of human behavior were sought through analytical study.

131. PERRIGO, LYNN I., OWEN, ALICE E., and SCHMIDT, ROBERT G. *Latin America within Courses in United States History*. Harvard Workshop Series, No. 7. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, 1947. Pp. viii+46.

Presents time-line, bibliography, and concrete suggestions for integration of Latin-American content into courses in United States history.

132. PETERS, C. C. "The 'Americanism-through-History' Study: A Progress Report," *High School Journal*, XXIX (October, 1946), 212-19.
Experimental pupils did as well as control groups in knowledge and exceeded the control pupils significantly in interpreting history, in recognizing social problems, and in evidencing concern about solution of the problems.
133. REDFIELD, ROBERT. "Social Science in the Atomic Age," *Journal of General Education*, I (January, 1947), 120-24.
Social science, which is first understanding, then invention, should contribute to both ethical and political wisdom. To accomplish this aim speedily and effectively, it must rid itself of fears (1) of being unscientific, (2) of education, and (3) of morals.
134. REDFIELD, ROBERT. "The Study of Culture in General Education," *Social Education*, XI (October, 1947), 259-64.
Proposes a planned addition to the social-studies program, in Grades I-XIV, of "exploration of culture and of human nature" so that students will understand thoroughly another culture than their own.
135. REMMERS, H. H. "Youth Looks at Social and Economic Problems," *American School Board Journal*, CXIV (May, 1947), 22-24.
Reports youth attitudes on schools, functions of government, intergroup relations, etc.
136. ROBERTS, AILEEN. "Politicians Serve as Teachers," *National Municipal Review*, XXXVI (May, 1947), 246-50.
Connecticut social-studies teachers learn from a summer institute staffed by governmental officials.
137. ROBINSON, EDGAR EUGENE. *Scholarship and Cataclysm*. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1947. Pp. 38.
Reports a survey of teaching and research in American history from 1939 to 1945. Sees increased public interest in United States history, dangerous cleavage between scholarship and teaching, and inadequate emphasis on the "great themes" of our history.
138. RUSSELL, DAVID H., and ROBERTSON, ISABELLA V. "Influencing Attitudes toward Minority Groups in a Junior High School," *School Review*, LV (April, 1947), 205-13.
Indicates difficulties and possibilities of changing attitudes through direct teaching and assembly programs.
139. SAYER, ALBERT H. "Horse and Buggy Supervision in the Atomic Age—the Case of the Social Studies," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXIX (April, 1947), 17-24.
Calls for a service bureau "to create sets of job sheets" for the social-studies courses in New York City public schools.
140. SHAPIRO, LEO (editor). "Evaluation of Agencies and Programs in Intergroup Relations," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XXI (September, 1947), 1-64.
This issue includes articles by Theodore Brameld, Hilda Taba, H. H. Giles, Louis Raths, Lloyd Allen Cook, Dorothy Merideth, Elbert Burr, and others.
141. SHORT, HARRIET B., and GEBERT, GENEVIENE. "Duplication in the Social Studies and Business Training," *Journal of Business Education*, XXII (December, 1946), 23-24.
Specifies significant duplication and suggests a narrower interpretation of "social studies."
142. SLOMINSKY, DAVID TUVIAH. "America, America, God Shed His Grace . . .," *English Journal*, XXXVI (October, 1947), 419-23.
Reports a unit for Grade VII B, which was centered in concepts of American democracy, that used biography, review of United States history, and some great documents.
143. "Social Studies Issue," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XX (May, 1947), 529-92.

Emphasizes problems approach, objectives, and materials in college social studies and international education.

144. STEWART, BRUCE. "Applying Scientific Method to Social Problems," *Social Education*, XI (March, 1947), 123-25. Describes a semester, twelfth-grade combination course in science and social studies, which gives major attention to the ways in which we get our ideas and test their accuracy.
145. THURSTON, HENRY W. *The Education of Youth as Citizens*. New York: Richard R. Smith, 1946. Pp. vii+256. Subtitled "Progressive Changes in Our Aims and Methods," this book emphasizes the "good act" and "consciousness of kind" as basic principles of citizenship education, Includes interesting reminiscences of social-studies-teaching since 1893.
146. WALKER, ROBERT A. "Important Political Documents in Civic Education," *Social Education*, XI (April, 1947), 170-72. Calls for the use of primary sources of social thought as basic reading in colleges and high schools.
147. WESLEY, EDGAR BRUCE. *Guide to the Study of World Affairs: 1947-1948 Program of Information on World Affairs*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Minneapolis Star, 1947. Pp. 28. The second edition of a work which outlines topics, cites materials, and suggests ways of integrating such information into the curriculum.
148. WILSON, HOWARD E. "Intergroup Relations in Teaching Materials," *Educational Record*, XXVIII (April, 1947), 114-21. Charges omissions and failure to come to grips with basic issues rather than conscious derogation of minority groups.
149. WOODY, THOMAS. "Of History and Its Method," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XV (March, 1947), 175-201. Presents a good summary of historical methodology, with a useful bibliography.

GEOGRAPHY

EDITH P. PARKER

University of Chicago

150. BOSCOW, H. "Geography in the Secondary Modern School," *Geography*, XXXII, Part 1 (March, 1947), 13-17. Discusses lines along which geography work in the British secondary modern schools may well develop.
151. BRINKMAN, ALBERT R. "Reading Improvement in Geography for Retarded Readers," *Journal of Geography*, XLVI (September, 1947), 234-40. Tells of ways of aiding slow, eleventh-grade readers to overcome difficulties in the use of geographic reading material.
152. CRESSEY, GEORGE B. "The Place of Geography in General Education," *Clark Graduate School of Geography: Our First Twenty-five Years*, pp. 27-33. Worcester, Massachusetts: Clark University Graduate School of Geography, 1946. Notes ideas to be stressed in geographic instruction in order to insure that geography fulfils its role in general education.
153. DELO, DAVID M. "Geography and National Literacy," *Educational Record*, XXVIII (April, 1947), 101-13. Points out the importance of geographic training in the development of a literate citizenry and the dangers of geographic illiteracy on a national scale.
154. EISEN, EDNA E. "Responsibility of the Geography Teacher in the Upper Grades," *Journal of Geography*, XLVI (November, 1947), 313-18. Stresses the need of junior high school pupils for experiences which help them learn (1) to explore for changes, (2) to become aware of the meaning and significance of measurements involved in geographic work, and (3) to use maps and globes in visualizing actual features and conditions.
155. FOSTER, ALICE. "Geography," *American People's Encyclopedia*. Chicago:

Consolidated Book Publishers [in press].

Gives an excellent view of modern geographic work as a continuation of man's age-long effort (1) to satisfy his curiosity about the earth, which is his home, and (2) to live on the earth's bounty without robbing future generations.

156. GARLOCK, LORENE A. "Tools of Research," *Journal of Geography*, XLVI (February, 1947), 55-62.

Lists reference materials in which reports of recent geographic findings and data useful in making new findings are available.

157. LATHROP, H. O. "Geography for the High School—A Bulletin," *Journal of Geography*, XLVI (January, 1947), 16-18.

Announces and describes the nature of an eighty-page bulletin issued from the office of the superintendent of public instruction of Illinois, which contains outlines for high-school geography and teaching suggestions.

158. LATHROP, H. O. "An Experiment in Conservation Education," *Journal of Geography*, XLVI (March, 1947), 96-100.

Describes and evaluates results of courses offered for teachers and adult students for the purpose of bringing them in direct contact with conservation problems and providing actual field experience.

159. LAWRENCE, PAUL F. "The Status of Geography in Secondary Schools in New Jersey," *Journal of Geography*, XLVI (January, 1947), 19-27.

Reports findings of an analytical study of the status of geographic instruction in New Jersey secondary schools from the standpoints of (1) materials and equipment, (2) active pupil participation, and (3) teacher preparedness.

160. MILLER, A. AUSTIN. "The Geographer and Current Affairs," *Geography*, XXXII, Part 2 (June, 1947), 77-83.

Emphasizes the value of "historico-geographical co-operation" in the study of

current affairs and cites British materials valuable for use as references.

161. PHILLIPS, MARY VIOLA. "Problems and Experiences in Teaching Geography to High School Seniors," *Journal of Geography*, XLVI (May, 1947), 182-91.

States conclusions based on results of courses given in the high school in New Kensington, Pennsylvania. Includes sample assignment sheets and lists of equipment and references used.

162. SHAWKEY, ADA M. "Contributions of High School Geography to Education for Citizenship," *Journal of Geography*, XLVI (October, 1947), 257-63.

Points out six ways in which high-school geography can contribute to citizenship education.

163. SORENSEN, C. W. "The Changing Geography of Arabia," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVII (June, 1947), 497-501.

Using Arabia as a case study, the author calls attention to the need for revision of geographic materials and emphases in keeping with changes which are taking place in man, in resources, and in man-land relationships.

SCIENCE³

WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP
University of Chicago

164. DAVIS, IRA C. "A Plan for Laboratory Activities in General Science," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVII (February, 1947), 146-54.

Describes five types of laboratory activities which must be planned for pupils.

165. EFRON, ALEXANDER. "The Spiral Physics Program," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXIX (January, 1947), 30-38.

³ See also Item 22 (*Science Education in American Schools*) in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1948, number of the *School Review*.

- Describes a method of organizing a physics course which proceeds from simple description and simple theory to more advanced description and theory.
166. FORD, W. E., JR. "Is Note Taking When Viewing Motion Pictures Effective in High School Service?" *Education*, LXVIII (October, 1947), 125-27.
Presents the results of an investigation comparing achievement when different methods of showing the film are used.
 167. IRVING, JAMES R. "The Science of Chemistry and the Consumer," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVII (March, 1947), 251-54.
Includes a list of books, periodicals, and government publications of value in the education of the consumer.
 168. JOHNSON, PHILIP G. "How To Increase Natural Resource-Planning," *Science Teacher*, XIV (October, 1947), 113, 133-35.
Discusses the procedures by which we may increase our natural resource planning and conservation education through the physical sciences. Also lists source materials.
 169. LEFLER, R. W. "The Teaching of Laboratory Work in High School Physics," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVII (June, 1947), 531-38.
Describes a method of getting away from mechanical "workbook" procedures in the laboratory.
 170. LEWIS, RALPH W. "How To Write Laboratory Studies Which Will Teach the Scientific Method," *Science Education*, XXXI (February, 1947), 14-17.
Presents an outline of the steps necessary to write laboratory exercises which give students practice in the use of the scientific method.
 171. LEWIS, RALPH W. "An Analysis of a Laboratory Study Designed To Teach the Scientific Method," *Science Education*, XXXI (April, 1947), 157-64.
Presents a detailed description of a laboratory exercise focused on the understanding and use of the scientific method.
 172. MORK, GORDON M. A. "The Scientific Method as a Teaching Procedure," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVII (June, 1947), 526-30.
Presents an outline of how the steps in scientific method may be adapted to teaching procedures.
 173. NEAL, NATHAN A. "Place of Science in the Education of the Consumer," *Science Teacher*, XIV (April, 1947), 71-72.
Discusses the necessity for consumer education and the ways in which science can contribute.
 174. NELSON, O. A. "Teaching Physics as We Use It," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVII (December, 1947), 829-35.
Describes a method of teaching physics from the point of view of the consumer.
 175. PETERSON, SHAILEY. "Do You Plan Changes in Your Science Curriculum?" *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVII (December, 1947), 796-801.
Discusses some of the problems that should be considered whenever a school examines its science offerings with a view toward modifying them.
 176. SCHUTTE, D. F. "Visualizing the Science Curriculum," *Science Teacher*, XIV (April, 1947), 82, 94-95; (October, 1947), 130-31, 143.
Lists companies that supply filmstrip and titles of specific filmstrips useful in the field of biology.
 177. *Science Education*. XXXI (October, 1947), 199-276.
The entire issue consists of papers presented at the meeting of the National Association for Research in Science Teaching at Atlantic City. A wide range of topics is included.
 178. WISE, HAROLD E. "The Measurement of Ability To Apply Principles of Physics in Practical Situations," *Science Education*, XXXI (April, 1947), 130-44.

Presents the results of an investigation to determine how the ability involved both in recall of information and in solution of conventional problems in physics is related to the ability to apply principles of physics in practical situations.

MATHEMATICS⁴

MAURICE L. HARTUNG

University of Chicago

179. ALBERS, MARY ELIZABETH, and SEAGOE, MAY V. "Enrichment for Superior Students in Algebra Classes," *Journal of Educational Research*, XL (March, 1947), 481-95.
Reports on an experiment in which selected superior pupils studied enrichment materials in time taken from the regular class period. Achievement and interest are compared with those of a control group of pupils of equal ability who did not use class time in this way.
180. BELL, E. T. "The Demise of Euclid," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVII (April, 1947), 327-35.
In spirited style, traces the history of attempts to replace Euclid's geometry by more modern treatments.
181. BOYER, CARL B. "History of the Derivative and Integral of the Sine," *Mathematics Teacher*, XL (October, 1947), 267-75.
A scholarly but readable account of the development of an important topic in elementary analysis.
182. BRESLICH, E. R. "The Outlook for Mathematics in the Secondary School," *School Review*, LV (January, 1947), 29-37.
Reviews the fundamental aims of mathematical education and supports recommendations for a new sequence for non-college-preparatory students.
183. FAWCETT, HAROLD P. "The Training of Mathematics Teachers," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXVI (April 16, 1947), 85-95.
Outlines elements needed in a modern training program for teachers of mathematics in a democracy.
184. FAWCETT, HAROLD P. "Mathematics for Responsible Citizenship," *Mathematics Teacher*, XL (May, 1947), 199-205.
Presents a forceful discussion of the potential role of mathematical education in producing thinking citizens.
185. FEHR, HOWARD F. "The Place of Multi-sensory Aids in the Teacher Training Program," *Mathematics Teacher*, XL (May, 1947), 212-16.
Recommends greater use of graphical methods and geometric models in teacher-training courses.
186. GAGER, WILLIAM A. "Computations with Approximate Numbers," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVII (May, 1947), 424-41.
Presents a summary of the major concepts and principles used in computation with approximate numbers. Gives numerous examples.
187. GEORGES, J. S. "Teaching Functional Thinking in Mathematics," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVI (November, 1946), 733-48.
Analyzes functional thinking into six propositions and presents numerous examples from arithmetic and high-school mathematics through which functional thinking may be developed.
188. HOWARD, HOMER, and REEVE, W. D. "Student Teaching in Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XL (March, 1947), 99-132.
Extensive discussion of the theory and practice of apprentice teaching. Valuable not only for beginners, but also for supervising and other experienced teachers.

⁴See also Item 536 (Guiler) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1947, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

189. KIELY, EDMOND R. *Surveying Instruments: Their History and Classroom Use*. Nineteenth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947. Pp. xiv+412.
The first two-thirds of this book gives a complete account of the development of surveying instruments from early beginnings in Egypt, China, and Babylonia to the end of the seventeenth century. The remaining third of the book explains how to use modern reproductions in the classroom or in field work. Many illustrations and a bibliography of 557 references are included.
190. LAZAR, NATHAN. "The Logic of the Indirect Proof in Geometry," *Mathematics Teacher*, XL (May, 1947), 225-40.
Analyzes several variant methods of indirect proof and makes the recommendation that one hitherto neglected method be used in place of the traditional proofs in textbooks.
191. MURNAGHAN, F. D. "The Teaching of College Mathematics," *American Mathematical Monthly*, LIII (October, 1946), 419-25.
Suggests unusual methods of treating numerous topics in Freshman mathematics and in calculus courses.
192. OHLSEN, MERLE M. "Control of Fundamental Mathematical Skills and Concepts by High School Students," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIX (December, 1946), 365-71.
Presents a summary of a dissertation showing that achievement is low on twenty-nine basic concepts and skills of elementary mathematics. An analysis of typical errors is included.
193. PEAK, PHILIP. "The Slide Rule in Junior High School Mathematics," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIV (December, 1946), 821-24.
Presents arguments for the use of the slide rule in Grades VII and VIII.
194. POSEY, L. R. "Change of Base," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVI, (December, 1946), 871-78.
Presents varied illustrations of the use of the concept of base in elementary mathematics.
195. REEVE, W. D. "Co-ordinating High School and College Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIX (December, 1946), 354-64.
Urges mathematics departments in higher institutions to recruit teachers, set up a special curriculum for training them, and exert influence for an improved secondary curriculum.
196. SCHACHT, JOHN F., and KINSELLA, JOHN J. "Dynamic Geometry," *Mathematics Teacher*, XL (April, 1947), 151-57.
Describes mechanical devices to illustrate or inductively derive geometric properties of several figures.
197. SCHORLING, RALEIGH. "The Crisis in Science and Mathematics Teaching," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVII (May, 1947), 413-20.
Presents data showing the small number of college students now preparing to teach science and mathematics and suggests some of the things needed to encourage more interest in teaching.
198. SEWELL, W. E. "Mathematics in the Army Education Program," *American Mathematical Monthly*, LIV (April, 1947), 195-200.
Reports on the popularity of courses offered through the Armed Forces Institute and comments on the need for a strong secondary-school mathematics program.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE

FRANCIS F. POWERS

University of Washington

199. BRICKMAN, WILLIAM W. "The Teaching of Foreign Languages," *School and Society*, LXV (January 25, 1947), 66-71.

- Reviews and analyzes twenty recent publications on the teaching of foreign languages.
200. CHURCH, HAROLD H. "That Latin Myth," *Nation's Schools*, XXXVIII (December, 1946), 24-25.
Combines constructive criticisms of present-day Latin-teaching with numerous and detailed suggestions for improvement.
201. CLAPP, HAROLD L. "Meditations on a Placement Program, or When Should a Foreign Language Be Studied?" *Modern Language Journal*, XXXI (April, 1947), 203-7.
Presents some observations based on the language-placement program at Grinnell College and concludes that recency is a primary factor in the successful continuation in college of a language started in high school.
202. DICKMAN, ADOLPHE J. "The Foreign Language Requirement in the Liberal Arts College," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXI (October, 1947), 335-42.
Upholds the foreign-language requirement of the liberal arts college as fundamental in a liberal education.
203. DUNHAM, FRED S. "What Should Be Done To Improve High-School Latin?" *School and Society*, LXIV (November 9, 1946), 324-25.
Lists suggestions which were brought out in a panel discussion of classroom procedures and teacher-improvement practices.
204. FINCH, CHAUNCEY E. "Latin and Russian as a Teaching Combination," *Classical Journal*, XLIII (October, 1947), 23-26.
Suggests Latin and Russian as a logical high-school teaching combination because of the similarities of the languages.
205. FITZ GERALD, THOMAS A. "A Plea for Graded Reading Texts," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXI (October, 1947), 359-62.
Stresses the importance of using graded reading textbooks in building an effective vocabulary.
206. FOLEY, LOUIS. "A Slight Error, You Say?" *Journal of Education*, CXXX (March, 1947), 83-85.
Emphasizes the need for careful attention to "details" of gender, etc., in learning to speak a foreign language.
207. FREEMAN, STEPHEN A. "The Articulation of High School and College Foreign Language Study," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXI (November, 1947), 393-402.
Analyzes four general obstacles to effective co-ordination of high-school and college foreign-language study and suggests alternatives.
208. HUEBENER, THEODORE. "Can Foreign Language Disks Be Used Successfully in High School Classes?" *Modern Language Journal*, XXXI (October, 1947), 343-46.
Points out the unusual advantages of using foreign-language disks in high school. At present the disks are directed toward self-instruction by adults rather than toward high-school classrooms.
209. HUTCHINSON, MARK E. "General Education and the Study of Classical Languages," *Classical Journal*, XLII (February, 1947), 287-94.
Stresses the contributions of Latin and Greek, as well as modern languages, to a general education.
210. HUTCHINSON, MARK E. "Can High-School Pupils Learn To Read Latin?" *School Review*, LV (September, 1947), 402-7.
Summarizes the four main obstacles met by high-school students in learning to read successfully: content, word lists, vocabulary density, and linguistic exercises.
211. JONES, WILLIS KNAPP. "Vocabulary of Theatrical Terms," *Hispania*, XXX (May, 1947), 203-8.

- Provides a list of useful Spanish words for discussing plays and movies.
212. LINDSAY, EDWARD Y. "The School Man's Latin and the Professor's," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXII (February, 1947), 93-98.
Shows the differentiation in student composition and aims and objectives of high-school and college Latin classes.
213. LYON, ELIZABETH H. "Textiles in the French Class," *French Review*, XX (March, 1947), 393-95.
Provides suggestions, using textile terms, for a unit on word-borrowings.
214. MCSADDEN, GEORGE E. "Concert Work with Individual Recitations—One Solution for Large Classes," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXI (May, 1947), 277-79.
Illustrates methods for combining individual and group recitation for effective development of pronunciation and thinking in the foreign language.
215. MARONPOT, RAYMOND P. "Reaching the Individual via the Unit Method," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXI (March, 1947), 157-61.
Advocates the "unit method" because of its adaptability.
216. MICHEL, ELEANOR L. "Oral French—An Experiment," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXI (February, 1947), 67-68.
Describes the work of a class in oral French which students select as an elective without credit.
217. MILLER, MINNIE MAY. "Notes on American Realia for Spanish Classes," *Hispania*, XXIX (November, 1946), 455-50.
Compiles material under general sources, pictures, slides and films, maps, flags, newspapers and magazines, radio programs, phonograph records, songs, international correspondence, and commercial realia.
218. PEI, MARIO A. "Our Job as Language Teachers," *School and Society*, LXIV (November 9, 1946), 321-23.
Challenges modern-language teachers to serve as "mankind's interpreters" through improved means of oral and psychological communication.
219. PHILLIPS, WALTER T. "Students Do Want To Study Foreign Languages," *School and Society*, LXVI (September 13, 1947), 204-5.
Reports on the foreign-language enrolment of San Diego (California) State College.
220. POTTER, WILLIS N. "Why Pupils Elect Foreign Languages," *Clearing House*, XXI (December, 1946), 217-19.
Concludes, on the basis of a study of 597 high-school pupils who were studying foreign language, that foreign-language study in the secondary-school curriculum will be important as long as it is taught "vitality and dynamically."
221. RYLAND, HOBART. "The Teaching and Testing of Verbs," *French Review*, XX (December, 1946), 143-44.
Illustrates the functional use of short oral or written sentences in verb-testing.
222. ULLMAN, B. L. (editor). *Education* (classical number), LXVII (June, 1947), 595-656.
Devotes the entire number to articles on general culture and human values of classical languages, methods of teaching Latin, its foundations for other languages, and high-school pupil evaluations.
223. WHITE, EMILIE MARGARET. "Post-war Language—A Challenge," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXI (April, 1947), 208-13.
Advocates teaching usable language skills the first year and turning then in two directions: (1) to provide work for serious students of language and (2) to increase usable skills already learned.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

HAROLD BAKER DUNKEL, *General Education in the Humanities*. The Cooperative Study in General Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1947. Pp. xx+322. \$3.50.

In January, 1939, the American Council on Education instituted its Cooperative Study in General Education, under the direction of Professor Ralph W. Tyler. Twenty-five colleges of widely differing types participated. Each institution enjoyed complete autonomy and was totally responsible for framing and activating its own program of participation in the Study. Originally planned to terminate in 1942, the Study continued for an additional two years through further assistance from the General Education Board.

In preference to making an attempt to cover fully the numerous projects on which the various colleges worked, Dunkel, in his book *General Education in the Humanities*, has chosen to treat a few subjects thoroughly and, in so doing, to demonstrate a method of investigation and evaluation that can be used in all fields which are in any way connected with the humanities. The author regards "the humanities" as concerned with three main endeavors: (1) helping the student to express himself and to communicate better, in English and in other languages; (2) developing in the student a clearer articulation of his religion or philosophy of life; and (3) providing active and appreciative experience in the arts. This threefold aim is summarized in the statement of Ralph Barton Perry that the humanities are those disciplines which "make man more man in the eulogistic sense of the word" (p. 16). The main function of the humanities is to con-

tribute to the good life—to help the student co-ordinate his values and construct a workable and commendable design for living.

Among other techniques of exploration and appraisal, the Study developed valuable instruments in its four "inventories," designed to discover a student's life-goals, his religious concepts, and his views on fiction and the arts.

The author based his life-goals inventory on a preliminary study by George E. Barton, Jr. By means of this study, the student was induced to make a statement of "what he found on his own mental and moral shelves." Among the twenty items in the list some were chosen to represent popular or "cracker-barrel" philosophy and others to represent some of the central orthodox viewpoints of academic philosophy. In estimating the value of these life-goals, students tended, on the whole, to range themselves with Mrs. Grundy. The author makes many suggestions of ways in which this inventory can be used in philosophy and communications courses and as a basis for counseling. The anomalous relations between a student's stated goals and his actual mode of life pose problems, many of which might provide incentives for further experiment and study. The work on which this book is based demonstrated the possibility that, after reflecting on his life-aims, a student may decide to modify them.

The inventories dealing with students' views on fiction and art also furnish disturbing information. Snob value and the desire to be in the swim often seem to rank higher as motives for reading literature than genuine enjoyment or the sincere desire to improve one's appreciative and critical faculties.

Best sellers and standard classics, such as *Silas Marner* and *Ivanhoe*, head the reading lists. Bruno Bettelheim, who prepared the art inventory and writes the chapter on art for this book, finds that, in their responses to the inventory, students tended to over-emphasize the importance of art, especially in fields where they had no direct experience of its relevance. Nearly half the students asserted that art is necessary to existence. Evidently, concludes Bettelheim, many students study art "out of a pretended interest or to benefit in some way from art's prestige" (p. 199).

This is a book on education which contains much factual information and also undertakes the task of "making sense" of the data it provides. The main topics are illustrated by responses and case histories of individual students. Inventories and check lists, with statistical data, are presented in full in eight appendixes. The author, in his first and last chapters, provides acute and penetrating observations on the problems of the Study from a general point of view. *General Education in the Humanities* will prove a valuable and stimulating guide to anyone interested in this branch of teaching. Its implications become wider the more deeply it is read and reflected upon.

HUGH R. WALPOLE

University of Chicago

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WALTER VINCENT KAULFERS and THORNTON CLARK BLAYNE, *Voces de las Américas*, pp. xiv+476+lii, \$3.20; *Modern Spanish Teaching—A Manual for "Voces de las Américas," "Voces de las Españas," "Guía al Español,"* pp. vi+100. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1947.

Along with everything else in the world today, education in general, and language-teaching in particular, are faced with the challenge of bridging the gap between what educators should have been doing all along the way and have not, and that which they must do, that is, become aware of the inade-

quacy of former and present efforts and, in terms of American life and culture, orient the curriculum to the present unselected student body. The challenge presented to language teachers is threefold: to teach language in a broader, more complete sense; to clarify their own aims and goals; to translate their conception of language and language-teaching into a concrete form which, in spite of weaknesses and obstacles, will meet the demands of our time.

In the educational advance guard are a few frontier thinkers who have considered the system of change as distinct from the product of change. We may mention specifically the twenty high-school teachers who were guided by Walter V. Kaulfers in the experimental programs conducted by the Stanford Language Arts Investigation from 1937 to 1940. The members of this investigation held that language is a social phenomenon and cannot be taught in isolation; they purposed "to understand and appreciate American civilization as an integral part of present and past world civilizations and to develop cultural integration in the present and future by effective communication of socially significant content through the medium of English and other languages" (*Foreign Languages and Culture in American Education*, p. 17. Edited by Walter V. Kaulfers, Grayson N. Kefauver, and Holland D. Roberts. New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., Inc., 1942).

The recent textbook, *Voces de las Américas*, by Kaulfers and Blayne, contains the materials which the Stanford Investigation tried and found highly successful. It is a well-planned first-level book that enables students to grow in ability to speak, read, and write Spanish in terms of meaningful content. The cultural end is stressed, and the drudgery of the traditionally sanctified grammatical approach is replaced with reading for comprehension, songs, and art and music appreciation. Simple conversations are carried on and repeated until the pupil feels at home in Spanish—evidence of the obvious, but hitherto purposely avoided, reality that

a minimal adequacy for colloquial usage of a foreign tongue can be gained by brief concentrated effort, regardless of knowledge of grammatical intricacies. Also important in these days when frontiers are shrinking is the fact that the historical, geographic, and social relationships and differences between Spain, North America, and South America are studied. Distributed through the book are review chapters, with easily scorable diagnostic self-tests and cross-references. The book concludes with a section entitled "Summary of Verbs for Conversation," a Spanish-English vocabulary, and a brief grammatical index.

All this material is supplemented by more than three hundred reproductions of splendid photographs, showing typical scenes of the daily life of Spanish people. A careful examination reveals that the illustrations measure up to the general criteria for pictures in textbooks; that is, an illustration should (1) have one central theme and avoid details that detract from it; (2) be rich in thought content; (3) supplement the textual material and aid in its interpretation and clarification; (4) be clear, distinct, and artistic; (5) furnish a vicarious experience which corresponds closely with a real situation; (6) be provided with titles and sources.

Worthy of mention in connection with this modern textbook for modern teachers is the accompanying manual entitled, *Modern Spanish Teaching*. It calls attention to the distinctive features of the series and gives suggestions for classroom procedures and guidance of improved language instruction. An annotated bibliography of audio-visual aids and a bibliography of books, periodicals, and teaching aids are also included.

Language textbooks which are *en rapport* with reality, as is this one, will go as far as any single factor to keep foreign-language instruction in a respected place in the curriculum.

EDNA LUE FURNESS

University of Wyoming
Laramie, Wyoming

HARRY DEXTER KITSON, *I Find My Vocation*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1947 (third edition). Pp. x+278. \$1.80.

There is always a need for clear, up-to-date and readable materials in the field of vocational education, such as Kitson's revised edition of *I Find My Vocation*, first published in 1931. The book has been written as a textbook for high-school classes, for use in home-room periods, or for private reading. The volume seeks to orient boys and girls to the occupational world, to aid them in obtaining a realistic understanding of its demands and of their own abilities. Some of the agencies, tests, books, and techniques that help the young person in choosing a career are discussed.

The reader is introduced to the wealth of concrete facts found in the United States Census. He learns that only about 6.4 per cent of all workers are employed in the professions. He becomes acquainted with the Occupational Groups and Divisions of the United States Employment Service. Social security and unemployment compensation are briefly explained.

The try-out function of school subjects, of clubs and other extra-curriculum activities, as well as of part-time work experience, is clearly presented. Hints are given on how to obtain the first job—what to wear, what to say, how to write a letter of application, how to fill out blanks, the services of the public employment office, and legal requirements governing the employment of minors. A valuable list of biographies, grouped under vocational headings, suggests further reading in selected fields. Separate chapters are devoted to the vocational problems of rural youth and to those of young women.

It is not unusual for some parents to feel that time could be saved and more accurate results obtained if a school had an efficient testing department. For years the author has sought to "debunk" all short cuts in the field of vocational guidance. He speaks frankly and authoritatively on this point, stating

that any person or agency that promises, for a fee, to give a test or a battery of tests which will indicate a person's best choice of a vocation should be avoided, as should the person who administers tests or gives guidance by mail. Kitson also states that, even if the tests were exact measures of vocational aptitude, they could not be used as indexes of success because they do not measure perseverance, honesty, skill, health, and other important factors.

The young reader finds the task of vocational choice, training, and success placed squarely on his own shoulders. Thus the contribution of this book lies not only in making the vocational world clear to the young person but also in providing the facts, techniques, and knowledge by means of which the reader can help himself. Kitson has rendered a real service to the youth and teachers of America. The vague generality which often clouds vocational guidance disappears before his practical approach.

MARIAN RAYBURN BROWN

Cortland, New York

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ALLEN CALVIN HARMAN, *Supervision in Selected Secondary Schools*. Willow Grove, Pennsylvania: Allen Calvin Harman (301 East Moreland Road), 1947. Pp. xii+182. \$3.00.

The study, *Supervision in Selected Secondary Schools*, by Harman is of the survey type; it attempts to describe "best practice" in supervision in twenty-four selected secondary schools. Harman also evaluates these supervisory practices according to five principles of supervision, developed in conjunction with a jury of supervisory "experts." The five principles are:

Supervision is based on the needs of individuals and society.

Supervision is democratic.

Supervision is scientific.

Supervision is creative.

Supervision stimulates desirable growth of individuals and society.

The selection of the twenty-four schools that were to be studied intensively was determined in the following manner: (1) An initial recommendation of schools which have outstanding supervisory practices was made by officials of secondary education of the various state departments of public instruction of the middle states and by college and public-school supervisory personnel of that area. (2) On the basis of information about their supervisory programs, gathered from the nominated schools, a final selection of twenty-four schools was determined by two college professors, two superintendents, and one high-school principal.

The author obtained his data through interview sheets which he used in his conferences with the high-school principals of the selected schools regarding supervisory practices in their schools. He also used a questionnaire, which he administered to a representative sample of teachers in these same schools in order to evaluate the supervisory practices of the schools. The following areas of supervisory practice were studied: "Concepts of Supervision"; "Planning Supervisory Programs"; "Supervisory Procedures Pertaining to Classroom Visitation, Individual Conferences, and Allied Activities"; "Supervisory Procedures Involving Group Activities"; and "Special Characteristics of Schools' Supervisory Programs." The book also presents descriptions of supervisory programs in individual schools.

The methodology and procedure in this study are routine. The conclusions drawn from the study are in harmony with the data but do not contribute any particularly new or significant knowledge to the field of educational supervision.

C. L. WINTERS, JR.

International Harvester Research Project
University of Chicago

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY,
AND PRACTICE

- BULLIS, H. EDMUND, and O'MALLEY, EMILY
E. *Human Relations in the Classroom*,
Course I. Wilmington 19, Delaware:
Delaware State Society for Mental Hy-
giene (1308 Delaware Avenue), 1947. Pp.
222. \$3.00.
- FROST, S. E., JR. *Essentials of History of Edu-
cation*. Brooklyn 10, New York: Barron's
Educational Series, Inc., 1947. Pp. vi+
206. \$1.25.
- GATES, ARTHUR I. *The Improvement of Read-
ing: A Program of Diagnostic and Reme-
dial Methods*. New York 11: Macmillan
Co., 1947 (third edition). Pp. xix+658.
\$4.25.
- HATHAWAY, WINIFRED. *Education and
Health of the Partially Seeing Child*. New
York 27: Published for the National So-
ciety for the Prevention of Blindness,
Inc., by Columbia University Press, 1947
(revised). Pp. xiv+216. \$2.50.
- An Introduction to the History of Sociology*.
Edited by HARRY ELMER BARNES. Chi-
cago 37: University of Chicago Press,
1948. Pp. xvi+960. \$10.00.
- KINSEY, ALFRED C., POMEROY, WARDELL
B., and MARTIN, CLYDE E. *Sexual Be-
havior in the Human Male*. Philadelphia 5:
W. B. Saunders Co., 1948. Pp. xvi+804.
\$6.50.
- Your Newspaper: Blueprint for a Better Press*.
By Nine Nieman Fellows, 1945-1946.
Edited by LEON SVIRSKY. New York 11:
Macmillan Co., 1947. Pp. xii+202. \$2.75.
- BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS
AND PUPILS
- FLESCHE, RUDOLF, and LASS, A. H. *The Way
To Write*. New York 16: Harper & Bros.,
1947. Pp. x+342. \$1.96.
- KAULFERS, WALTER VINCENT, and BLAYNE,
THORNTON CLARK. *Voces de las Américas*,
pp. xiv+476+lii, \$3.20; *Modern Spanish
Teaching—A Manual for "Voces de las
Américas," "Voces de las Españas,"
"Guta al Español,"* pp. vi+100, New
York: Henry Holt & Co., 1947.
- MONAGHAN, FRANK. *Heritage of Freedom:
The History and Significance of the Basic
Documents of American Liberty*. Prince-
ton, New Jersey: Princeton University
Press, 1947. Pp. 150. \$3.50.
- REINHOLD, MEYER. *Essentials of Greek and
Roman Classics: A Guide to the Humani-
ties*. Brooklyn 10, New York: Barron's
Educational Series, Inc., 1946. Pp. vi+
328. \$1.50.
- Workshop Papers: No. 10, "Living More
Effectively in the Community" (For
Ninth Grade—English, Social Studies,
Home Economics) by LA VAUGHAN BOUL-
DEN, FRANCIS HENNINGFELD, and LORE-
TA HUBERTZ, pp. v+37, \$0.45; No. 11,
"Rights" (A Unit in American Culture)
by EDITH L. STEELE and DONALD A.
DAKE, pp. 10, \$0.10; No. 12, "America's
Economic Pattern" (A Unit in American
Culture) by EDITH L. STEELE and DON-
ALD A. DAKE, pp. 16, \$0.15; No. 13,
"Coming to America" (Integrating Ex-
periences for Major Work Classes) by
OPHELIA SMITH, pp. iv+23, \$0.25; No.
14, "The People of Colorado" (General
Education Unit for Ninth Grade) by
KATHERINE KENEHAN and MAUDE
SMITH, pp. iii+19, \$0.25; No. 16, "The
Development of Communication" (A
Unit for Sixth Grade) by GRACE POINTER,
pp. ii+15, \$0.20; No. 17, "A Literature
Unit to Supplement the Unit 'The Devel-
opment of Communication'" (For Sixth
Grade) by JULIA MARBAUGH, pp. ii+12,
\$0.15; No. 18, "Human and Group Re-
lations" (Tentative Plan for Art Unit
Based on Common Needs—High School
Level) by MAXINE M. BAKER, pp. ii+15,
\$0.15; No. 19, "Human Relations through
Reading" (A Unit in Reading for Adults)
by KATHLEEN DOWLING, pp. ii+20,

\$0.20; No. 20, "The Use of Language Arts in Developing Understanding Ourselves in the Family, School and the Community" by FRIEDA L. FUSS, pp. iv+14, \$0.20. Prepared at Intergroup Education Workshop, University of Chicago, Summer, 1947. New York 19: Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools, American Council on Education (437 West Fifty-ninth Street), 1947. (Mimeographed.)

PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM

BERRY, JOHN W. *Secondary and Post Secondary Educational Continuation in a Rural County*. Eureka, Illinois: Eureka College, 1947. Pp. 54. \$1.50.

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